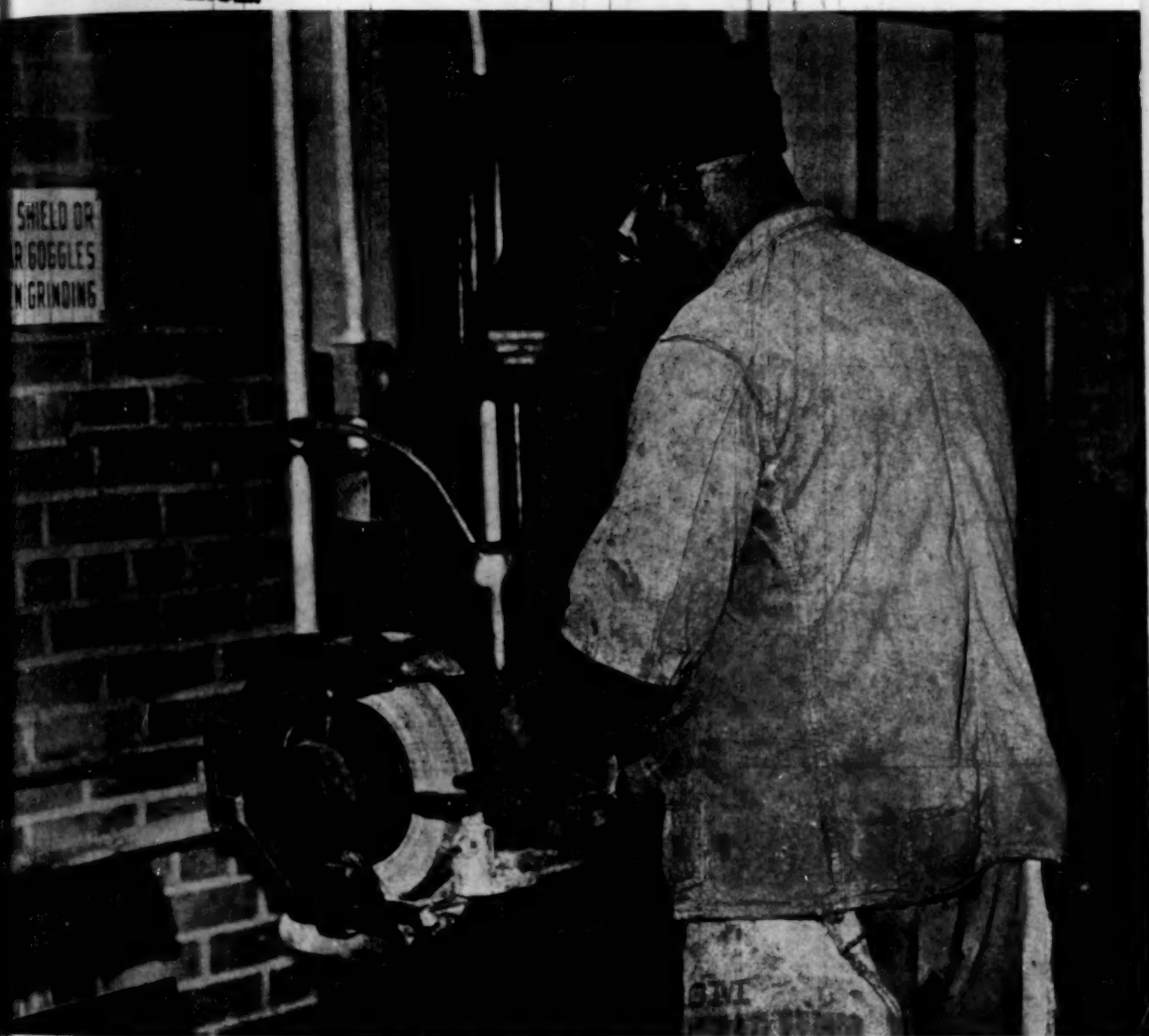


MONTHLY **LABOR REVIEW**

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

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in this issue . . . Care of Aged in Old People's Homes • Family Expenditures for Medical and Personal Care and Miscellaneous Items • Strikes in 1939 • Paid Vacations in Latin America

MAY 1940

Vol. 50 • No. 5

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR

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MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR • BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

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This Issue in Brief

Paid Vacations in Latin America.

Fourteen of the Latin American Republics have legislation in force providing annual paid vacations for one or more classes of employees, other than those in civil-service employment. Both salaried and wage-earning employees enjoy such right in some countries, but only salaried employees in others. The earliest legislation now in force is that of El Salvador, enacted in 1927, and the latest, that of Bolivia, in 1939. The length of the vacation varies in the different countries from 4 to 30 days; in certain countries the period varies with years of service, with days of service during the qualifying period, or with type of employment. Page 1128.

Earnings in Paperboard Industry.

Workers in plants manufacturing paperboard earned an average of 59.8 cents an hour in November-December 1939. The highest hourly earnings were received in the Pacific States, where the employees averaged 73.8 cents an hour. Hourly earnings averaged 64.2 cents in the Lake States, 61.1 cents in the Midwestern, 60.6 cents in the Northeastern, and 52.8 cents in the Southern States. The East Central region, comprising a group of States located between the northeastern and southern areas, had the lowest average—48.5 cents an hour. Page 1196.

NYA Work Projects.

Under the National Youth Administration's work projects program, needy young people between 18 and 24 years of age, inclusive, are provided with employment. The projects are designed to make it possible for these young persons to acquire

sound experience and proper work habits.

For the year closing 1938-39, the accomplishments through these projects, under the auspices of local public agencies, included the construction of 3,120 new buildings, while the number of buildings repaired or improved totaled 7,728. Notable achievements in the way of other construction and conservation work are also reported in the article on page 1153.

Public Housing in New York.

Public housing in the State of New York has been given broader scope under legislation adopted in 1939. It is now possible for local housing authorities to obtain State aid in erecting low-cost dwellings. This program supplements federally-assisted construction. Under the new law the State is empowered to make housing loans and annual grants by way of subsidy to insure the low-rent character of projects, provided the municipalities also grant subsidies. The division of housing has been reorganized to facilitate rehousing. In 1939 it was officially reported that 1,031,000 new dwelling units were required in the State. For New York City it was estimated that 34.1 percent of the families were in need of housing and for all cities of 10,000 population and over the percentage was 28.1. Page 1168.

Expenditures for Medical and Personal Care.

When families of wage earners and clerical workers have paid for the basic requirements of urban living, food, shelter, clothing, household operation, housefurnishings, transportation and recreation, they find a margin of only one-tenth of their total expenditure to

cover expense for medical care, personal care, gifts and direct personal taxes, formal education, and miscellaneous items.

The average annual expenditure of all families for medical care was \$59 per family or \$16 per person. Personal-care expenditures were \$30 per family and expenditures for items such as formal education, vocation, gifts and direct taxes, and other miscellaneous items amounted to \$63. Page 1062.

Strikes in 1939.

The number of strikes declined in 1939 as compared with 1938. The number of workers involved and the time loss was considerably larger than in 1938, but this was due almost entirely to one large dispute—the bituminous-coal stoppage. A detailed analysis of the labor disputes which occurred in 1938, showing the industries affected, as well as the size, duration, causes and results, is given in the article on page 1080.

Homes for Aged.

Facilities for care of some 103,000 aged people were disclosed by returns in a survey of old people's homes in the United States, made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Such homes are open to persons who fulfill certain entrance requirements, such as attainment of a specified age (usually not below 60 years), membership in the organization which sponsors or contributes to the support of the home, residence in the locality in which the home is situated for a specified period, etc. Nearly two-thirds of homes operate on the life-care basis, charging an admission fee of several hundred dollars and undertaking for this sum to furnish complete care for the rest of the resident's life. About one-third of the homes are boarding homes, charging weekly or monthly rates and giving therefor only board and room. A discussion of the homes, their requirements, and characteristics is given in the article on page 1043.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

FOR MAY 1940

CARE OF AGED IN OLD PEOPLE'S HOMES

Summary

VARIOUS means have been resorted to, in the United States as elsewhere, for caring for old people who are without homes or relatives to support them and those who, possessing means, lack the strength or desire to run an establishment of their own. The almshouse has been a traditional way of caring for destitute (or "paupers" as the phrase formerly was) of all ages. Supported as a public charity, the almshouse or poor farm has always been regarded by self-respecting individuals as a last desperate resort, not to be considered except in extremity, for residence in such an institution generally carried with it a painful social stigma.

The almshouse is gradually disappearing in the United States. Several factors have contributed to this. One has been the gradual public realization that, throwing together as it has, healthy indigents with those afflicted with disease of all degrees of severity, sane persons with insane, senile, feeble-minded, and epileptic, and innocent young children with adults of all degrees of moral rectitude or iniquity, the almshouse is socially undesirable. Its inmates often have had only one characteristic in common—that they were destitute.

Most States began some years ago to remove the feeble-minded and epileptic to other institutions. Likewise, children have been or are being taken from the poorhouses either to institutions specializing in child care or to foster homes. The system of mother's pensions that had been growing as a voluntary State measure for a decade or more before the passage of the Federal Social Security Act, received great impetus under that act and hastened the process of removal of children from almshouses.

The same act, providing for federally aided State allowances for aged, also had an effect on the elderly population of almshouses. Able-bodied old people whose receipt of the old-age allowance enabled relatives to care for them, or who were able to live independently either alone or in a private boarding home, left the almshouse, and a

number of States had at the end of the first 2 years of the operation of the social-security system already felt the results. In a number of cases almshouses were closed. In others the dwindling of the able-bodied population, leaving a larger proportion requiring personal or hospital care, has resulted in a tendency either toward conversion of the almshouse into an infirmary or toward the establishment of new centralized institutions to care for ailing aged.¹

A third means of care is what are generally termed old people's homes. Some of these are frankly charitable institutions, toward the support of which the resident contributes nothing. Others are philanthropic in the sense that although the guest has contributed either in the form of a fee at time of admission or previously through his dues to the supporting organization, an additional subsidy is necessary to cover the cost of full support. Such homes are distinguished from the almshouses by the fact that they represent private philanthropy (in which the resident himself may be or have been a contributor) as contrasted with public charity. Even the few homes which receive some of their support from city or county authorities require fees from the resident and also benefit by funds from private philanthropy. In the case of State soldiers' homes, no fees are expected from the soldiers therein but shelter is accorded as a recognition of past services for their country and this is not regarded as charity. Not only does no social stigma attach to residence in an old people's home, but such is the extent of public acceptance that a large proportion of such homes actually contain one or more guests who are financially able to maintain themselves elsewhere but prefer the care and companionship available in the home.

Using the above definition of an "old people's home," the Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1939 made a survey of all such homes in the United States which it was able to discover by careful canvass of all possible sources of information. The returns received thus far in the survey² indicate that there are at present facilities for about 103,000 old people in 1,428 homes throughout the United States.

Comparison of the 1939 returns with the situation in 1929 when a similar study was made³ indicates that the depression beginning in 1929 had a serious effect on many of the old-established homes, dependent as many of them were on the incomes from investments. As such investments in many cases yielded little or no return during the depression or became entirely worthless, a considerable number of

¹ For summaries of findings of studies on composition of almshouse population and effect of social-security program on almshouses, see *Monthly Labor Review*, September 1938 (p. 518) and January 1939 (p. 67). See also description of Delaware State Welfare Home for Aged, *Monthly Labor Review*, January 1934 (p. 11).

² The final report of this study, including a directory of homes (giving capacity and entrance requirements) will be published as a bulletin of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

³ The results of that survey were published as the Bureau's Bulletin No. 489.

homes had to be closed; altogether, the returns indicated that 115 homes (or about 9 percent of the total) were forced out of operation. No data are at hand to show what became of the residents in these homes. It is known, however, that in a number of cases in which the same organization was supporting several homes at various places, one or more were closed and the residents transferred to the remaining institutions. In 1939 many homes were still operating at less than capacity, and one of these reported it would accept no more guests until its financial condition could be improved. Another had had its funds so depleted that two of its three buildings had to be closed. On the other hand, at least 81 new homes were opened between 1929 and 1939, and the additional facilities made available by these and by extensions to structures previously existing, together resulted in increasing the total home capacity of the homes reporting by more than 10,000 during the decade.

In order to enter an old people's home the applicant must meet certain definite requirements, varying from home to home. Among these the most general are age, sex, financial, membership, and character requirements. Once accepted, in the majority of homes he becomes a "life member," entitled not only to food and shelter for the rest of his life, but also to clothing, laundry, medical and nursing care (even hospital attention in some cases), and burial.

Some homes accept guests only on payment of regular weekly or monthly rates, providing therefor only room and board; and a few provide shelter only (at very low rates), the resident being expected to provide for himself the rest of his subsistence. The greater part of the homes, however, provide complete care.

The 1939 survey did not entail visits to individual homes. Visits made in the 1929 study revealed a wide variety of conditions, ranging from scant provision of the barest necessities of life to the comforts, even luxuries, comparable with those received in a prosperous well-appointed club or hotel.

Nearly 65 percent of the homes reporting required some contribution from the resident, in the form of a flat sum paid at entrance or specified weekly or monthly rates; some homes take residents on either basis. A few institutions taking life-care residents set the entrance fee in accordance with the life expectancy of the incoming resident. In such cases the fee presumably meets the greater part of the cost of care. Examination of the general level of fees and other financial requirements, however, indicates that in the majority of homes subsidy from some source is necessary.

The great majority of homes have a sponsoring organization, ranging from a labor organization or a fraternal or religious order to an informal group of local charitably minded citizens. In case of homes founded and endowed by legacy, a trusteeship usually operates the

home. In the majority of cases the sponsoring organization is the only or chief source of income for the home, though many homes receive additional funds from a few or many other sources.

Several new types of dwellings have lately appeared which are designed especially to care for persons in receipt of public old-age allowances. In these, as in a few of the older homes, only housing is provided—at low rates—and the resident is self-supporting otherwise, the funds in these cases coming from the State old-age allowances. In general, however, the homes are provided for specific groups—members of a specified organization (fraternal, religious, labor, etc.), nationality or race, relatives of a given group (as relatives of marines, soldiers, or sailors), or residents of a given locality. Indeed, so restrictive are the requirements in some cases that the field of usefulness of the home is severely reduced. This is especially true of homes established under the terms of wills drawn up to meet conditions that no longer exist. At the other extreme are some of the private and religious homes whose main or only requirements are the applicant's need and lack of other suitable shelter.

Some of the institutions reporting are full to overflowing, and some also have a long waiting list. Others are only partially filled. In the whole group of homes for which information was available—93 percent of the total reporting—vacancies formed 11.7 percent of the total capacity. This figure, however, included the old soldiers' homes, which have in many cases a steadily dwindling population, and the fraternal homes; in both of these, vacancies formed over one-fifth of the total capacity.

The above average also included 700 institutions which not only had no vacancies but had waiting lists. The actual vacancy rate would be even higher than indicated above, were the average based only upon homes which had vacancies. In general it appeared that waiting lists were most common among the smaller homes dependent on limited resources.

Although many of the homes expect the residents to assist about the home in such light tasks as they are able to do, most of the homes employ one or more paid employees. An exception to this is the group of large Catholic homes operated by the Little Sisters of the Poor. In these, all of the work is done by the sisters. The homes reporting paid employees had a total of 14,614 such workers.

Age of Homes

Information on year of establishment, supplied by 1,209 homes, reveals that over two-fifths date from before 1900, another third were

established in the period from 1900 to 1919, and nearly one-fifth between 1920 and 1929.

	Percent
Before 1800.....	0.2
1800-1849.....	1.0
1850-74.....	9.8
1875-99.....	30.0
1900-1909.....	17.8
1910-19.....	16.5
1920-29.....	18.0
1930-39.....	6.7
Total.....	100.0

Size of Homes

A third of the homes reporting had a capacity of fewer than 25 persons, and about three-fifths had accommodations for fewer than 50. Only 6.9 percent could care for 200 or more; this group included the large public homes for aged war veterans. Excluding the veterans' homes, the homes having a capacity of 200 or more formed only 4.5 percent of the total. The percentage distribution of homes according to their capacity is shown below:

	Percent
Under 25 persons.....	33.7
25 and under 50 persons.....	27.0
50 and under 75 persons.....	12.7
75 and under 100 persons.....	7.5
100 and under 200 persons.....	12.2
200 persons and over.....	6.9
Total.....	100.0

Individual homes ranged in size from a home with capacity of 3 persons to two veterans' homes with 1,500 capacity each.

Number of Persons Provided for

Of 1,543 homes to which questionnaires were sent, 115 had ceased operation since 1929, and 1,428 were in operation in 1939. Thus far, usable returns have been received from 1,339 of the 1,428 active homes. These had a combined capacity of 92,592 in 1939, or an average of 72 persons per home. Applying this average to the nonreporting homes, it would appear that the whole group of homes for aged in the United States offer facilities for the care of some 103,000 old people. Table 1 shows, by States, the total number of homes and the number reporting, together with their capacity.

TABLE 1.—Total Number of Old People's Homes, and Capacity (as of Jan. 1, 1939) of Those Reporting, by States

State	Total number of homes	Homes reporting		Home capacity, per 100,000 of population ¹
		Number	Capacity	
All States.....	1, 428	1, 339	92, 592	72
Alabama.....	8	8	718	25
Arizona.....	3	3	202	49
Arkansas.....	3	3	176	9
California.....	57	56	6, 212	102
Colorado.....	8	8	1, 187	111
Connecticut.....	52	45	2, 004	115
Delaware.....	9	8	341	131
District of Columbia.....	24	22	2, 349	377
Florida.....	9	9	1, 172	71
Georgia.....	18	11	453	15
Idaho.....	3	3	209	43
Illinois.....	82	79	7, 496	95
Indiana.....	36	35	3, 327	96
Iowa.....	32	28	2, 015	79
Kansas.....	19	19	1, 976	105
Kentucky.....	15	11	752	26
Louisiana.....	17	13	766	36
Maine.....	19	17	528	62
Maryland.....	27	27	1, 668	99
Massachusetts.....	125	119	3, 978	90
Michigan.....	40	39	2, 727	57
Minnesota.....	44	42	3, 199	121
Mississippi.....	4	4	377	19
Missouri.....	32	29	2, 963	75
Montana.....	5	4	250	47
Nebraska.....	16	14	1, 332	98
New Hampshire.....	22	22	699	137
New Jersey.....	62	58	3, 285	76
New York.....	190	186	14, 434	111
North Carolina.....	7	6	188	5
North Dakota.....	8	8	473	67
Ohio.....	75	73	5, 254	78
Oklahoma.....	3	3	280	11
Oregon.....	12	10	513	50
Pennsylvania.....	170	161	9, 812	97
Rhode Island.....	17	17	900	132
South Carolina.....	10	8	263	14
South Dakota.....	3	3	362	52
Tennessee.....	20	16	892	31
Texas.....	25	23	1, 391	23
Utah.....	1	1	22	4
Vermont.....	11	10	215	56
Virginia.....	23	18	920	34
Washington.....	22	20	1, 363	83
West Virginia.....	5	5	381	21
Wisconsin.....	33	33	2, 500	86
Wyoming.....	2	2	68	29

¹ On basis of census estimates of population as of Jan. 1, 1937.

Industrial areas, with their many wage earners whose earnings never yield sufficient margin to make provision for their old age, are those areas where the need for such homes is undoubtedly the greatest. As table 1 indicates, it is in most cases the industrial States where the greatest number of homes are found. New York is far in the lead not only as regards number of homes but also as regards capacity. Pennsylvania, Illinois, California, Ohio, and Massachusetts follow, in the order named, as regards number of aged that can be cared for. Comparatively few homes are in the agricultural States, and the Bureau could discover no homes at all in Nevada and New Mexico.

When population is taken into account, however, the situation is considerably altered. Only 10 of the 47 jurisdictions shown had

capacity, in their homes for aged, for caring for over 100 per 100,000 of their population. Relating capacity to population, only California and New York of the industrial States above mentioned had a capacity exceeding 100 per 100,000 of population. On this basis the District of Columbia took the lead by virtue of the presence of the National Soldiers' Home, though even without it the District's rate would have been 136. The rates of some of the other States were also raised by the presence of national homes of various kinds, drawing residents from all over the United States and not representing facilities for the sole use of State residents. This was true of Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Tennessee, and Virginia. In these States were the national homes of the printers, carpenters and Order of Moose, railway conductors, railroad brotherhoods, printing pressmen, and Order of Elks.

To ascertain to what extent use was being made of facilities provided, the questionnaire called for data (as of January 1, 1939) on number of residents by sex, and number of vacancies, in relation to capacity. It was recognized, of course, that the "capacity" might be a quite flexible number, especially in homes providing private rooms but accepting married couples. In such cases the greater the proportion of couples the larger the number of guests that could be accommodated.

There were 1,248 homes furnishing data on all four points—capacity, number of male and female residents, and vacancies. Tabulation of these returns indicates that there were 9,829 vacancies on that date, out of a total capacity of 84,024—or a vacancy rate of 11.7 percent (see table 2). The highest proportions of vacancies were found in the State soldiers' homes and in the fraternal institutions; in both of these, vacancies constituted over one-fifth of the total capacity.

TABLE 2.—Capacity and Residents of Old People's Homes, as of Jan. 1, 1939, by Sponsoring Organizations

Sponsoring organization	Number of homes reporting	Normal capacity	Residents, Jan. 1, 1939		Vacancies	Vacancy rate
			Men	Women		
All organizations.....	1,248	84,024	30,899	43,296	9,829	11.7
Federal Government (soldiers' and sailors' homes).....	2	1,725	1,597	-----	128	7.4
State governments:						
Soldiers' homes.....	30	9,953	6,252	1,546	2,155	21.6
Other homes.....	10	814	126	607	81	10.0
County governments.....	1	28	16	8	4	14.3
City governments.....	4	472	340	119	13	2.8
Labor organizations.....	3	609	543	26	40	6.6
Religious denominations.....	221	10,501	2,035	7,539	927	8.8
Religious philanthropic organizations.....	293	25,310	9,445	13,926	1,939	7.7
Fraternal organizations.....	120	12,125	5,242	4,308	2,575	21.2
Nationality groups.....	30	1,707	630	939	138	8.1
Other organizations.....	83	3,469	828	2,236	405	11.7
Private organizations.....	451	17,311	3,845	12,042	1,424	-----

On the other hand, 700 homes reported waiting lists varying from 1 or 2 persons to as many as 1,100. In several cases the waiting list was larger than the home population. The homes with waiting lists were in the main the smaller ones operated by religious or other organizations for their members only.

The period of waiting before being admitted also varied widely, ranging from a week or two to 10 years. The questionnaire asked for an estimate of the average period of waiting between submission of application and entrance into the home. A large proportion of the homes with waiting lists replied that the periods varied so widely that an estimate was impossible. One superintendent in this group pointed out that "practically all remain for life, and some reach a great age." In many homes, the applicant's only chance for admission is when one of the residents dies. In the largest group reporting, however, the waiting time was less than 6 months.

The following statement shows the distribution of 320 homes, with waiting lists, that reported average time between application and admission:

	Number	Percent
Less than 1 month.....	13	4.1
1 month and under 6 months.....	116	36.2
6 months and under 1 year.....	20	6.2
1 year and under 2 years.....	63	19.7
2 and under 3 years.....	57	17.8
3 and under 4 years.....	19	6.0
4 and under 5 years.....	16	5.0
5 and under 6 years.....	11	3.4
6 and under 7 years.....	1	.3
7 and under 8 years.....	1	.3
10 years.....	3	1.0
Total.....	320	100.0

In order to cope with such a situation, some of the homes have enlarged their facilities since 1929. Thus, comparison of the returns for 1929 and 1939 indicates extension of facilities in 83 homes, providing quarters for 7,312 additional residents.

The 81 new homes established since the 1929 survey have a combined capacity of 3,118. The following statement shows the number of persons for whom accommodations were provided in each year beginning with 1930:

	Number of homes	Capacity
1930.....	21	642
1931.....	9	692
1932.....	8	214
1933.....	6	325
1934.....	11	275
1935.....	7	208
1936.....	9	500
1937.....	4	115
1938.....	4	69
1939.....	2	78

Homes for Special Groups

OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS

Among the institutions for which reports were received were 72, admission to which is limited to specific occupational groups. Only 5 of this group of homes were supported entirely by a labor organization or by contributions from the specific occupation. The others received their support from various sources. The homes for soldiers and sailors were publicly supported, the religious workers' institutions depended largely on donations from churches or individuals of the particular denomination sponsoring the home, as well as (in most cases) from moderate life-care fees. The remaining institutions had been largely established under the terms of wills and depended for the most part on the income from such legacies, though these homes also received some income from fees and, occasionally, from the local community chest.

As table 3 indicates, 69 of the 72 homes had facilities for caring for more than 15,000 persons. Two of the homes established for the benefit of ministers, missionaries, and others in church service provided only living quarters at extremely low rates; the resident was expected to be otherwise self-supporting.

TABLE 3.—Capacity of Homes for Specified Occupational Groups

Occupational group	Number of homes	Capacity
All groups.....	72	¹ 15,142
Agriculture: Farmers.....	1	(²)
Building and construction:		
Carpenters.....	1	400
Shipbuilders.....	1	15
Needle trades: Dressmakers and allied trades.....	1	27
Printing trades:		
Printing pressmen.....	1	240
Typographers.....	1	420
Professions:		
Actors.....	3	95
Artists, teachers, authors.....	1	16
Literary or other professional work.....	1	9
Music teachers.....	1	64
School teachers.....	1	6
Ministers, missionaries, and others, in service of religious denominations:		
Baptist.....	2	³ 55
Congregational-Christian.....	2	127
Methodist.....	1	50
Presbyterian.....	3	87
United Brethren.....	1	30
Any Protestant denomination.....	1	93
Sect not reported.....	1	22
Transportation, railroad:		
Conductors.....	1	70
Locomotive engineers, firemen, enginemen, and trainmen.....	1	119
Transportation, marine: Sailors, merchant marine.....	3	832
War service:		
Soldiers, sailors, or marines—		
Civil War.....	10	³ 768
Any war.....	25	9,339
Regular Army.....	1	1,500
U. S. Navy.....	2	260
War nurses.....	2	232
Other:		
Firefighters.....	1	180
Mechanics.....	1	66
Workingmen.....	1	20

¹ Not including 3 homes which did not report capacity.² No data.³ Not including 1 home which did not report capacity.

In some cases considerable periods of service in the occupation were required in order to qualify for admission. Thus, in order to enter the home for mechanics the applicant must have served 10 years at some mechanical trade. The home for music teachers required evidence of 25 years' service. One of the actors' homes was open to persons of either sex who had had 5 years' experience on the dramatic stage; foreigners were required to have had 10 years' experience, 3 of which (immediately preceding application) must have been on the American stage. For one of the homes for retired workers in the religious field, 20 years' work in the service of the sponsoring church was a prerequisite. Twenty years' service in the Regular Army is required for entrance to the National Soldiers' Home, but one of the seamen's homes (run under private auspices) requires only 5 years' sea service under the American flag.

HOMES FOR NEGROES

To 964 homes only white persons are admitted, 50 homes take only colored people, and the bylaws of 325 contain no specific provision on this point.

The 50 homes for Negroes had a capacity of 1,293. Most of these homes are very small. Of the 49 reporting as to capacity, 36 had accommodations for fewer than 25 persons each. Only two homes could care for over 100 residents; these had a capacity of 140 and 125, respectively. The average for the whole group was 26.

In the 1929 study 9 homes for colored persons were visited. These visits revealed that physical conditions at the Negro homes did not in general equal those at the homes for whites, although there were homes in the latter group that were as bad as the worst found among the colored.

HOMES FOR NATIONALITY GROUPS

There were 37 homes with a capacity of 1,909, admission to which was restricted to specific nationalities.^{3a} These homes represented 13 different nationalities.

^{3a} These figures do not necessarily correspond with those given for nationality groups which sponsor homes, for some of the latter homes may not have a nationality entrance requirement and some of the homes with nationality requirements are sponsored by religious or other organizations rather than by a nationality group.

The number and capacity of these homes are shown below:

	Number	Capacity
British.....	¹ 4	210
Czechoslovak.....	1	35
Dutch.....	2	180
French.....	2	43
German.....	6	294
Polish ²	1	102
Scandinavian.....	15	867
Danish.....	4	188
Swedish.....	4	394
"Scandinavian".....	7	285
Scotch.....	2	89
Spanish.....	1	10
Swiss.....	1	38
Welsh.....	2	41
Total.....	37	1,909

¹ One of these admits Irish also.

² And must also be a former resident of Warsaw.

A few homes are for "Americans" only—those born in the United States, or naturalized citizens. Thus, 9 homes place United States citizenship as a prerequisite for admission. Twenty-two homes specify that the applicant must be an "American" or a "native of the United States"; one of these, however, will admit naturalized citizens if they have been such for 21 years or more. Two homes require not only that the applicant be a native, but the parents must also have been born in this country.

The above are the only ones having a definite requirement on this point, but this requirement is of course implicit in some of the others—such as birth or life-long residence in a specified city, county, or State.

HOMES FOR HANDICAPPED

Six of the homes included are designed especially for the care of aged in specific handicapped groups. Thus, two homes accept only deaf old people, one only deaf mutes, two only deaf or deaf-blind, and one only blind. The capacity of these homes is shown in the following statement:

Accepting only—	Number	Capacity
Deaf mutes.....	1	33
Deaf.....	2	70
Deaf or deaf-blind.....	2	83
Blind.....	1	31
Total.....	6	217

HOMES FOR OLD-AGE PENSIONERS

During the past few years—since the inauguration of the social-security system—several new types of homes have appeared. These include individual dwelling units in apartments, colonies of individual cottages, and clubs run collectively on the cooperative plan by “roomers” who are also the members and operators of the houses. All of these new forms have evolved as an attempt to provide housing accommodations for aged receiving the small allowances under the public old-age assistance plan.⁴

Sponsoring Organizations

A wide variety of sponsoring organizations⁵ was found. Of 1,327 homes for which data on this point were received, the largest group, 537, was run by religious denominations or under their auspices. These homes had a combined capacity of 39,980. Among the individual sects, Catholic homes had accommodations for 17,975 persons, Jewish homes for 6,082, and all the Protestant denominations combined 15,923.

Fraternal homes numbered 129, with a capacity of 13,371. Some of the fraternal organizations, such as Loyal Order of Moose and Order of Elks, have a single, National, home for their aged members. In other cases where several homes are shown, the homes are generally supported by the lodges in a single State or in several neighboring States, with the grand lodge for the region acting as sponsor and operating the home. The two leading orders, in point of both number of homes and persons cared for were the Masons (and Eastern Star) and the Odd Fellows (and Rebekahs).

Institutions supported from public funds had accommodations for 14,260 of which 12,035 were in State-supported homes for war veterans and their wives and widows. The homes established or supported by county or city authorities⁶ were generally maintained (on a partially self-supporting basis) for aged local citizens.

Nine institutions (caring for 1,531 persons) were supported by occupational groups, mainly the trade-unions. Other sponsors in this group were a retail druggists' auxiliary association and 2 organizations of volunteer firefighters.

The number of institutions, and their capacity, sponsored by specified classes of organizations are shown in table 4.

⁴ For a detailed account of these new types, see Monthly Labor Review, August 1939, or Serial No. R. 977.

⁵ By “sponsoring organization” is meant the organization responsible mainly for the establishment of the home or in large degree for its support and direction, or both.

⁶ 30N almshouses.

TABLE 4.—Number and Capacity of Homes for Aged, by Sponsoring Organization

Sponsor	Num-ber of homes	Ca-pacity (per-sons)	Sponsor	Num-ber of homes	Ca-pacity (per-sons)
Total.....	1,327	91,942	Other organizations.....	602	22,800
Religious denominations ¹	537	39,980	King's Daughters and Sons.....	26	624
Catholic.....	148	17,975	War veterans and auxiliaries.....	11	403
Lutheran.....	78	4,105	Woman's Christian Association.....	6	316
Jewish.....	56	6,082	Women's Christian Temper- ance Union.....	4	161
Methodist.....	47	3,295	Daughters of the British Em- pire.....	3	149
Episcopalian.....	47	1,494	Volunteers of America.....	2	48
Presbyterian.....	29	1,408	Young Women's Christian Association.....	2	41
Evangelical and Reformed.....	28	1,460	Phyllis Wheatley Association.....	2	27
Baptist.....	28	² 1,450	Other (not more than 1 each).....	546	21,031
Congregational-Christian.....	20	862	Public authorities.....	50	14,260
Brethren ³	17	784	United States Government.....	2	1,725
Friends.....	12	348	State.....	43	² 12,035
Mennonite.....	5	135	County.....	1	28
Moravian.....	3	59	City.....	4	472
Unitarian.....	2	31	Occupational groups.....	9	1,531
Universalist.....	2	38			
Christian Science.....	1	108			
United Zion.....	1	70			
Reorganized Latter Day Saints.....	1	40			
Denomination not known or not specified.....	12	236			
Fraternal organizations.....	129	13,371			
Odd Fellows and Rebekahs.....	46	4,216			
Masons and Eastern Star.....	45	6,646			
Knights of Pythias and Pyth- ian Sisters.....	14	860			
Maccabees.....	3	² 178			
Patriotic Order of Americans.....	3	103			
P. E. O. Sisterhood.....	2	63			
Red Men.....	2	56			
Other ⁴ (not more than 1 each).....	14	1,249			

¹ Includes religious philanthropic organizations.² Not including 1 home which did not report capacity.³ Church of the Brethren, United Brethren, River Brethren, etc.⁴ Includes Orders of Elks, Foresters, Moose, Svithiod, and Vikings, Knights of Damon, Knights of Malta, Sons and Daughters of Liberty, Sons of Herman, Neighbors of Woodcraft, Woodman's Circle, Ben Hur Association, Security Benefit Association, and Loyal Orange Institution.

Entrance Requirements

Age.—Generally the prime requirement that must be met in all homes, before acceptance, is that of age. The age most commonly set as the minimum for admission is 65 years. Of 1,239 homes reporting on this point, 622 set 65 years as the lowest entrance age; 302 others set 60 years. The percentage distribution of homes according to minimum age of admission is as follows:

	Percent
50 years.....	1.5
51 to 59 years.....	.8
60 years.....	24.4
61 to 64 years.....	.3
65 years.....	50.2
66 to 69 years.....	1.4
70 years.....	4.9
Over 70 years.....	.6
No age requirement.....	15.8

Total..... 100.0

Where different ages are set for men and women, the most frequent combinations found are (1) 60 for women, 65 for men; (2) 65 for women, 70 for men; and (3) 68 for women, 70 for men.

FEES

Nearly 65 percent of the homes reporting were at least partially dependent upon fees from the residents—either a life fee (entitling to care for the remainder of the applicant's life) or a weekly or monthly rate.

Of the organizations operating on a life-care basis, over two-fifths required no fee for admission to the home. The majority of these were homes run by organizations for their members only, in which the member was considered already to have made his contribution to the home through monthly dues over a period of years.

This was true of all of the homes run by labor organizations and of a very large proportion of the fraternal homes, as well as of a substantial percentage of those run by religious denominations or under sectarian auspices. None of the soldiers' homes charged admission fees, but in one case—the National Soldiers' Home, Washington, D. C.—the contributions from warrant officers and men in the Regular Army furnished the greater part of the necessary funds and the guest was therefore considered to have already paid his way in. About one-eighth each had life-care fees of from \$500–\$600 and \$1,000–\$2,000. For nearly 7 percent there was no set fee, each case being considered on its merits and the fee being varied according to the resources of the applicant. In a very large proportion, even of homes having a set scale of fees, worthy persons were sometimes accepted without fees.

In a great many cases no indication was given as to the basis for the rate set. In some institutions, however, the entrance fee was based upon the applicant's age at time of admission (i. e., upon his life expectancy).

The following statement shows the percentage distribution of the homes accepting life-care residents:

	Percent
No fees.....	44. 2
Less than \$300.....	5. 3
\$300 and under \$400.....	5. 6
\$400 and under \$500.....	2. 0
\$500 and under \$600.....	12. 4
\$600 and under \$1,000.....	7. 2
\$1,000 and under \$2,000.....	12. 5
\$2,000 and over.....	3. 9
Fee varies according to resources of applicant.....	6. 9
Total.....	100. 0

In addition to the entrance fees, a few homes require the deposit of a sum (ranging from \$60 to \$200 in those reporting) to cover the cost of burial, or require that the applicant obtain a guaranty by relatives or friends that they will meet such expenses. One home requires that the guest be the possessor of the deed to a cemetery plot. Most of the homes require that the applicant transfer to the home, on admission, any property, insurance, or other assets of which he may be possessed. This transfer may be absolute at that time, or the property may be held in trust until the resident's death.

Nearly 350 of the homes charged monthly or weekly rates. There was, however, some duplication here with the life-care homes, as some institutions had both life residents and boarders. Of the homes taking boarders, a considerable proportion were those operated under religious auspices.

The rates charged indicate the presence of a subsidy, in many cases, from other sources. Often the subsidy came from investments or endowments. The distribution of the homes charging weekly or monthly rates is shown in the following statement:

Weekly rate of—	Number	Percent
Less than \$5.....	15	4.5
\$5 and under \$10.....	56	16.9
\$10 and under \$20.....	27	8.1
Monthly rate of—		
\$10 and under \$20.....	18	5.4
\$20 and under \$30.....	74	22.3
\$30 and under \$40.....	94	28.3
\$40 and under \$50.....	28	8.4
\$50 and over.....	20	6.0
Total.....	332	100.0

SEX REQUIREMENTS

The returns indicate that aged women are better provided for by far than are aged men. An aged man would, on the basis of the entrance requirements reported, have a chance for admission to 67.9 percent of the homes, whereas an aged woman would have a chance in 95.9 percent of the homes. Of 1,338 homes reporting on this point, nearly one-third admitted women only.

	Percent
Men only.....	4.1
Women only.....	32.1
Both sexes.....	5.8
Both sexes and couples.....	58.0
Total.....	100.0

As was shown in table 2, omitting the soldiers' homes (which shelter largely men), the women formed 64.7 percent of the residents; including the soldiers' homes they formed 58.5 percent.

HEALTH REQUIREMENTS

A vast majority of the institutions refuse to take mental cases. Most of them also specify that at the time of entrance the applicant must be in "normal health," meaning thereby a state of health normal for the person's age. Others specify practically the same thing by requiring that the resident must be "ambulant," "able to care for his own personal needs," "not bedridden," "able to come to the dining room for meals," "not requiring personal care," "not a bed patient," etc. Some further specify that the applicant must be free from communicable, "objectionable" or malignant disease, or from certain named ailments (epilepsy, tuberculosis, cancer, paralysis, diabetes, blindness, etc.).

These, it should be emphasized, are *entrance* requirements. Should the resident become incapacitated after admission the great majority of homes (except the strictly "boarding homes") will furnish medical and nursing care.

Other homes, notably the large Jewish homes, accept infirm and disabled and some give preference to them over the able-bodied applicants. As already noted, several take only deaf, deaf-mutes, or blind aged.

Submission to thorough medical examination, at the time of entrance to the home, is practically a universal requirement, even in those institutions which accept the infirm and disabled.

OTHER REQUIREMENTS

The prime requirement for admission to a home sponsored by a definite group or organization is generally membership in the organization, often for a specified period of years. Thus, to enter a Masonic home the applicant must ordinarily have been a member in good standing in a local lodge contributing to the support of the institution.

Only one home specified that applicants must be "free from marked personality defects." Several others include such required characteristics as "adaptability," "congenial," "good disposition." In practice, however, these are very general requirements, which the probationary period provides opportunity to evaluate.

A number of the homes specify that the applicant must be without other means of support, or unable to support himself; the fraternal homes figure largely in this group. Some refuse an applicant if he or she has relatives or children able to furnish support. A few of the homes for women accept only childless or unmarried persons, and one accepts "spinsters" only.

Although residence requirements are found in all groups, homes supported or sponsored by local organizations are more likely than the others to have, as one of the prime requisites for entrance, a specified period of residence in the city, county, or other designated region. The most commonly required periods are 2, 3, 5, and 10

years, but periods ranging from 6 months to 30 years were found. Two homes require, respectively, lifelong residence in the city and in the State, and another gives preference to persons born in the city where the home is situated.

Good moral character is a general requirement and a substantial proportion require one or more character references. In the endeavor to maintain a home population on a high level of culture, some of the institutions specify that the applicant must be a "gentlewoman," "a woman of refinement," "a gentlewoman in reduced circumstances," "a person of good cultural background." Most of these are associations taking women only, but one home restricted to men requires that the applicant must have been a person of some means and standing in the community, not divorced.

Other, infrequent, requirements include such as belief in a Supreme Being (several fraternal homes), Christian, church member, etc.; that the applicant shall not be addicted to the use of alcoholic beverages, drugs, or (two homes only) tobacco; clothing sufficient for a specified period; furnishings for the resident's room; ability to assist in the operation of the home.

Most of the homes accepting guests on a life-care basis have a trial period of varying length (2 to 6 months, in the majority of cases). During this period both home and resident are on probation. The guest has the opportunity to judge whether he or she is likely to be contented there, and the home superintendent is given a chance to observe the resident in his relations with the others and to determine the desirability of his continued presence there. If either party, during or at the end of the period, decides unfavorably, deduction is made from the entrance fee of the cost of room and meals and the remainder is returned to the applicant on his departure.

What the Residents Receive

Examination of the cost to the residents of the homes, in the form of entrance fees, indicates that these old people receive more than their money's worth. Assuming an average cost to the home of \$410⁷ per person per year, it is evident that fees and other contributions by the guest would cover at best only a few years' care. The applicant may live only a year or two after admission; on the other hand, he may live 15 or 20 years. It is the experience of the homes that the good physical care provided, and above all the comforting sense of security, tends to prolong the lives of the residents, and many of them live to a great age.

A large proportion of the homes require that the applicant must be in reasonably good health, considering his age, at the time of admission. Once accepted, however, practically all of the life-care homes provide medical or nursing care, or both, if the resident falls

⁷ This was the average cost in the homes giving life care, which volunteered information on this point.

sick. Thus, of 1,241 homes reporting on this point, 83.2 percent furnished both medical and nursing care, 6.0 furnished nurse only, 2.7 doctor only, and 8.1 expected the resident to bear the cost himself.

That such care may entail considerable extra expense for the home is indicated by a study of chronic sickness in homes for aged, made in 1931.⁸ That study, which covered 78 homes for aged within a radius of 50 miles of New York City, revealed that 48 percent of the guests had chronic incapacitating ailments; more than a tenth were bedridden, and 6 percent were confined to wheel chairs. A large proportion had been receiving care since shortly after their admission to the home.

Some of the larger homes have one or more paid full-time physicians. In a number of cases, the homes receive free service from local physicians who give their time as a charity.

In addition to shelter, food, laundry, medical and nursing care, a great many of the homes also provide burial (though a few require a specific fee for this expense).

In order to recoup some of the loss between fee income and obligations assumed, it is a general practice of the homes to require the incoming guest to transfer all or part of such income or property as he possesses to the home. In return the home may bind itself to pay some or all of the income from it to the guest during his lifetime.

On the other hand it is a quite common practice to accept, free, persons without means to pay the fee, if they fulfill all the other conditions of entrance.

Sources of Income of Homes

Where the home had a sponsoring organization, generally the sponsor also provided a large measure of financial support for the institution, for even where entrance fees were charged these were often entirely inadequate to cover the cost of care during the remainder of the resident's life. In many cases, especially as regards homes originally established under the terms of a will, the legacy had so dwindled as to be insufficient for support and often in such cases additional assistance had to be sought from other sources.

Homes established by fraternal orders are supported solely by the order, generally through regular dues paid by the members for the purpose or by appropriations made from the organization's general funds. The same is true of the trade-union homes.

Of the homes operated under Catholic auspices a large proportion receive no support from the sponsoring organization. Thus, the homes of the Little Sisters of the Poor—all large institutions offering only the barest necessities of life and usually having as their main (or even only) requirement that the applicant be destitute, depend

⁸ Welfare Council of New York City. Research Bureau study No. 5: Care of the Chronic Sick in Private Homes for Aged in and near New York City, by Mary C. Jarrett. New York, 1931.

for their support upon voluntary contributions of food, clothing, and other articles from business men (grocers, bakers, etc.) and private individuals. The homes are, however, run by the sponsoring order and usually the nuns perform all of the work, with what little assistance can be given by the residents.

In the homes sponsored by an outside organization, such as a labor union or a fraternal order, usually the only source of support for the home is that organization and its members. Generally such homes require no fees, as the resident is considered to have made his contribution during his years of membership in the sponsoring organization. Of the 1,201 institutions which reported as to their sources of income, nearly 10 percent were endowed homes operating entirely on the income from invested funds or with these supplemented by an entrance fee. In 23 percent the support came from a sponsoring organization alone or with some supplementary income from fees or other sources. Three percent were homes dependent on individual contributions (most of these were the homes of the Little Sisters of the Poor), and fewer than half of 1 percent were supported entirely by a local community chest.

Nearly 5 percent of the homes were dependent entirely on the fees paid by the guests. Most of these were homes of the "boarding" type, charging fixed rates per week or month and supplying no care beyond food and shelter.

The largest group of homes (nearly 55 percent) received support from a variety of sources, including one or more of the following: Fees, residents' pensions or old-age assistance allowances, sponsor, city or county, local community chest, donations by individuals, collections from churches and other local organizations, proceeds of bazaars, entertainments, "tag days," legacies, endowments or other investments, and income or products from home farm. Of the 1,201 homes, 187 were receiving some assistance from the local community chest.

The distribution of the reporting homes, by sources of support, is shown in table 5.

TABLE 5.—*Sources of Income of Old People's Homes*

Source of income	Number of homes	Percent
Homes with entrance fees:		
Fees only.....	55	4.6
Fees and—		
Endowment.....	94	7.8
Contribution from sponsoring organization (including income from endowment and other invested funds).....	131	10.9
Other sources.....	659	54.9
Homes without entrance fees:		
Endowment only.....	23	1.9
Sponsoring organization only.....	87	7.2
Sponsoring organization mainly, but with some assistance from other sources.....	61	5.1
Individual contributions only.....	40	3.3
Community chest only.....	4	.3
Other sources.....	47	3.9
Total.....	1,201	100.0

FAMILY EXPENDITURES FOR MEDICAL CARE, PERSONAL CARE, AND MISCELLANEOUS ITEMS¹

Summary

AMONG the 14,469 families included in the Study of Money Disbursements of Wage Earners and Clerical Workers in 42 large cities the average expenditure for medical care was \$59 per family or \$16 per person for 12 months within the period 1934-36. This figure includes all charges for medical, dental, and hospital services (in general on an individual fee basis), drugs and medicines, medical appliances, and health-insurance premiums. The average of \$16 per person does not even approach the estimate of \$76 per person, made by Dr. Samuel Bradbury on findings of the Committee on the Costs of Medical Care, as the amount necessary to provide adequate medical care at minimum fees on a fee-for-service basis.

That pride in one's personal appearance is a part of the American way of living is shown by the stability of expenditures for personal care. At each of the income levels for which data were gathered in this investigation, 2 percent of the total annual current expenditure was absorbed by the amounts spent for personal services and toilet articles and preparations.

Of the remaining items discussed in this article, the largest expenditure was for gifts and contributions to relatives and other persons outside the economic family. An average of \$24 per family or 1.6 percent of total family expenditure was used in this manner. Direct taxes and other contributions to community welfare, amounts spent for education, vocational expense and expenditures for miscellaneous items claimed a very small proportion of the total family expenditure.

Medical and Personal Care and Miscellaneous Items in Relation to Total Expenditure

After the three main requirements—food, shelter, and clothing—have been paid for, moderate-income city families find on the average that less than one-third of their incomes are left for the many other goods and services which are essential to urban living. In addition, over one-fifth of the average income goes to pay for household operation, furnishings, transportation, and recreation. That leaves a margin of only one-tenth to cover all of the items of family expenditure discussed in this article—medical care, personal care, gifts and direct personal taxes, formal education, and miscellaneous expenditures.

¹ This is the sixth in a series of articles prepared by the Bureau's Cost of Living Division, presenting a summary of data collected in the Study of Money Disbursements of Employed Wage Earners and Clerical Workers in 1934-36 for 42 cities combined. A total of 14,469 white and Negro families are covered by this report. No families with incomes below \$500 or which had received any relief during the year were included in the investigation. See Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletins Nos. 636, 637, vols. I and II, Nos. 639, 640, 641, and articles in the Monthly Labor Review for December 1939 and January, February, March, and April 1940. The final report will be published as Bulletin No. 638.

Even though these items form, on the average, a relatively small part of the total family expense, they include outlays of great importance to physical and mental well-being. Medical care in an emergency is crucial to health, if not to life itself. The provision of school books and tuition for advanced study or for special lessons may make it possible for the family to carry out cherished ambitions for the children or the adults of the family. Contributions to dependent relatives frequently are essential to the preservation of self-respect. In some cases they are sufficient to avoid recourse to relief or doubling up of families in one household. Neatness and attractiveness of personal appearance, reflected in expenditures for personal care, give a feeling of self-confidence to the job holder or job seeker as well as to the student or homemaker. Expenditures for such items are, therefore, even when small in amount, of considerable interest in human terms. They cumulate, in the case of expenditures for medicines and drugs or toilet preparations, for example, to impressive aggregate outlays for the products of certain manufacturing and service groups.

Expenditures for Medical Care, by Income Level

Expenditures for all kinds of medical care and personal care, for the 14,469 families included in the investigation, are shown in table 1. Medical care for these nonrelief families with incomes over \$500 averaged \$59 per family or \$16 per person for 12 months within the period 1934-36. The figures represent the expenditures for medical care as reported to an interviewer by families selected as representative of employed wage earners and lower-salaried clerical workers.²

TABLE 1.—*Expenditures for Medical and Personal Care by 14,469 Families of Wage Earners and Clerical Workers, by Income Level, in 42 Large Cities*

[Data cover 12 months within the period 1934-36]

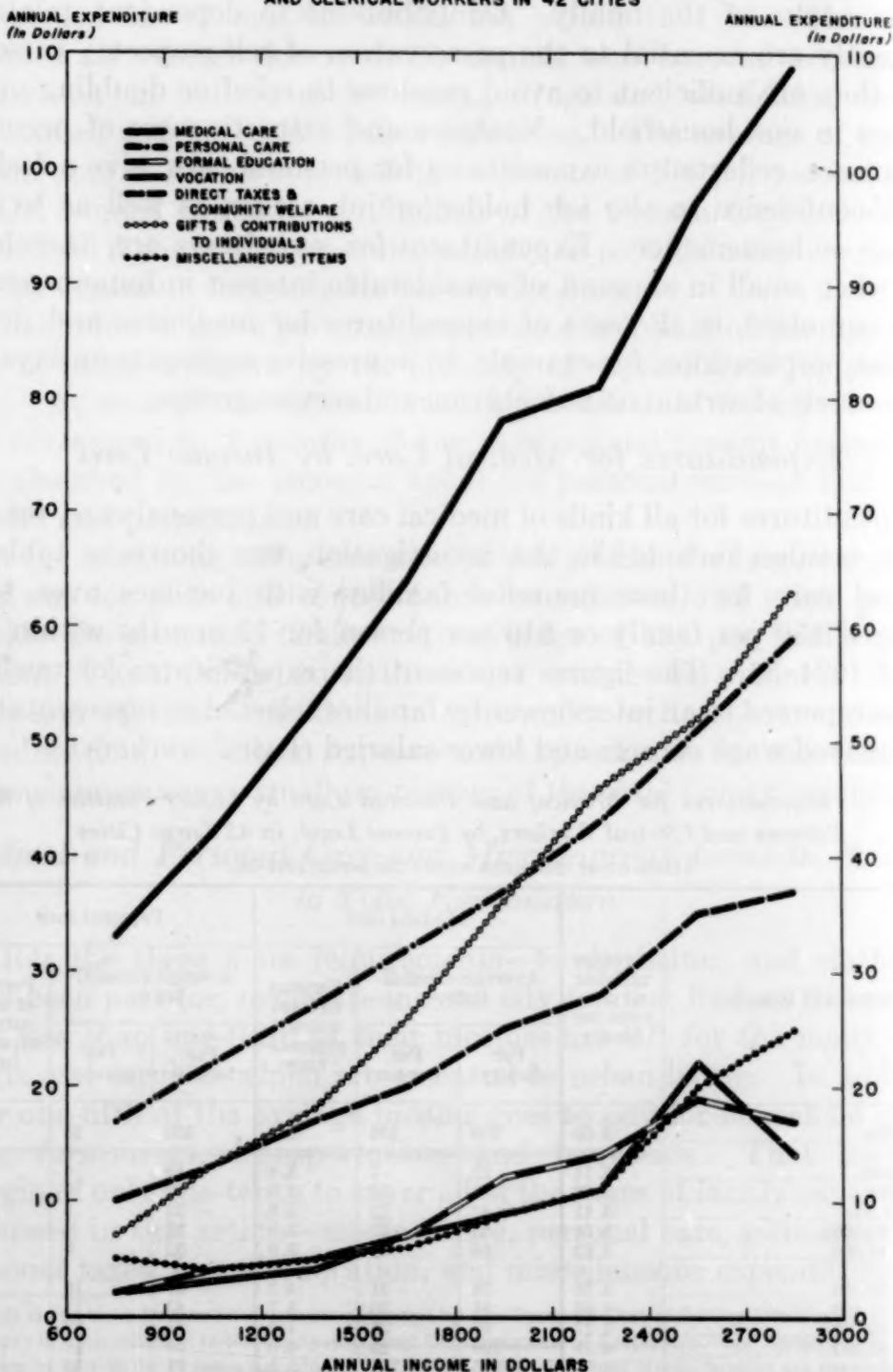
Annual net income	Average number of persons per family	Medical care			Personal care		
		Average expenditure—		Percent of total current expenditure	Average expenditure—		Percent of total current expenditure
		Per family	Per person		Per family	Per person	
All families.....	3.60	\$59	\$16	3.9	\$30	\$8	2.0
\$500 to \$600.....	3.11	22	7	3.4	13	4	2.0
\$600 to \$900.....	3.18	33	10	3.9	17	5	2.0
\$900 to \$1,200.....	3.41	42	12	3.8	22	6	2.0
\$1,200 to \$1,500.....	3.54	53	15	3.9	27	8	2.0
\$1,500 to \$1,800.....	3.62	64	18	3.9	32	9	2.0
\$1,800 to \$2,100.....	3.76	78	21	4.2	37	10	2.0
\$2,100 to \$2,400.....	4.03	81	20	3.7	43	11	2.0
\$2,400 to \$2,700.....	4.27	97	23	4.0	51	12	2.1
\$2,700 to \$3,000.....	4.37	109	25	4.0	59	14	2.2
\$3,000 and over.....	4.81	115	24	3.5	71	15	2.2

² Names of persons whose families were to be interviewed were drawn at random from lists of employees of employers also drawn at random. (For further details see appendix D of Bulletins Nos. 637 (vol. I), 639, or 641.) The interviewer, equipped with an itemized schedule form, asked the housewife or other family member interviewed to recall or estimate the expenses of the entire family for each of the items shown in table 3.

Fig. 1.

FAMILY EXPENDITURES FOR SPECIFIED GROUPS OF ITEMS AT SUCCESSIVE INCOME LEVELS 1934-1936

14,469 WHITE AND NEGRO FAMILIES OF WAGE EARNERS
AND CLERICAL WORKERS IN 42 CITIES



The figures on medical-care expenditure represent medical, dental, and hospital services purchased in general on an individual-fee basis, drugs and medicines, medical appliances, and health-insurance premiums. Unpaid medical bills, if incurred within the year of the investigation, are included as expenditures.³ The total cost of the medical services received by the families represented in the study was undoubtedly somewhat larger than this amount. Clinic and ward services are supported in part by endowments and contributions to hospitals, and in part by services contributed by the medical staff. Some, but not many, of these families reported the payment of clinic fees, and as many as 4 percent paid for beds in hospital wards. Information on the subject of free medical care was obtained only in New York. For the 1,000 families of employed wage earners covered in the New York City investigation, the following statement⁴ shows the number of families reporting free service, together with those reporting charges for corresponding service.

	Families reporting service—	
	Charged for	Free
Room in hospital ward.....	28	6
Clinic.....	112	4
General practitioner:		
Home visit.....	345	0
Office visit.....	360	2
Specialist.....	138	2

The two cases of free service by specialists included above were services supplied by a pediatrician and throat specialist.

As a percentage of total family expenditure, medical-care expenditures remained fairly stable at around 3½ to 4 percent. (See fig. 2.) Families with incomes from \$500 to \$600 reported average annual medical-care expenditures of only \$22 per family, or \$7 per person—3.4 percent of their total expenditures. At higher income levels the amounts spent per family and per person were markedly greater. (See table 1 and fig. 1.) Because families at higher income levels were larger, the increase per person from low to high income levels was not, however, as great as the increase in expenditure per family.

ADEQUACY OF EXPENDITURE FOR MEDICAL CARE

The average expenditure for medical care of \$59 per family or \$16 per person may be compared with various estimates of the cost of adequate medical care. Thus, the Committee on Costs of Medical

³ In using all the figures collected in the expenditure study and especially those on medical care, it is important to keep in mind that the data represent family obligations incurred during the year, whether or not the family had paid the charges incurred.

⁴ This ratio is not to be taken to represent the amount of free clinical work in New York City. Relief families were not covered in this survey, nor were families with incomes of less than \$500. Free medical care, however, was not regarded as a form of relief.

Care⁵ estimated the amount of service necessary to meet the people's real needs, if paid for on a group basis rather than an individual fee-for-service basis, at \$36 per person per year. This included \$11 for dental care and \$25 for other medical needs.⁶ This is over twice the amount of the actual expenditures for medical and dental care of the families of wage earners and clerical workers studied. Furthermore, most of these families paid for their medical care on an individual fee-for-service basis rather than under a form of group medical care. More recently the Technical Committee on Medical Care of the Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities⁷ estimated \$25 per person per year as the reasonable minimum cost per person of adequate medical care (including dentistry), if the care is purchased by groups rather than by individuals.⁸ This sum is also substantially in excess of the sums paid by these families of wage earners, principally on an individual basis.

On the basis of private medical care at minimum fees on a fee-for-service basis, the Technical Committee just mentioned refers to the estimate of \$76 per person per year computed by Samuel Bradbury.⁹ This estimate excludes dentistry, medicines, appliances, and any clinic or free service provided by the community. In citing this estimate the Technical Committee commented, "Obviously such expenditures for medical care would be possible for the great majority of families only with extraordinary adjustments in the distribution of income, in budgets, and in standards of living."¹⁰ There is a wide disparity between this figure and those shown in table 1. Even for the highest income group shown, the expenditures of the wage earner and clerical families would have to be tripled to reach such a standard. One is forced to conclude that in fact the medical needs of many of these families are dangerously slighted.

⁵ The Committee on Costs of Medical Care was organized in May 1927, by a group of physicians, health officers, social scientists and representatives of the general public to "study the economic aspects of the prevention and care of sickness including the adequacy, availability, and compensation of the persons and agencies concerned." The chairman was Ray Lyman Wilbur. Funds for a 5-year program of research were supplied by a number of agencies and independent foundations.

⁶ Committee on Costs of Medical Care. Publication No. 28 (final report): *Medical Care for the American People* (p. 31), Chicago, 1932. See also Publication No. 25 of the same committee: *Ability to Pay for Medical Care*, by Louis S. Reed (p. 84), Chicago, 1933.

⁷ The Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities was appointed by the President in August 1935 under the chairmanship of Josephine Roche, to forward the operation of the varied Federal program provided by the Social Security Act. The Technical Committee on Medical Care was charged by the Interdepartmental Committee in 1937 with the task of surveying the health and medical-care work of the U. S. Government. Its report was presented at the National Health Conference in Washington, July 18 to 20, 1938.

⁸ Report of the Technical Committee on Medical Care. (In Interdepartmental Committee to Coordinate Health and Welfare Activities, *Proceedings of National Health Conference*, July 1938, p. 57.)

⁹ Lee and Jones (Committee on Costs of Medical Care, Publication No. 22, Chicago, 1932) estimated the medical care required by a population with the age distribution which prevailed in 1930, and Dr. Samuel Bradbury estimated its cost on a fee-for-service basis at \$76 per person (Samuel Bradbury, M. D.: *The Cost of Adequate Medical Care*, Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1937, p. 53).

¹⁰ See footnote 8.

Expenditures for Personal Care, by Income Level

Expenditures for personal care, although not having the direct relation to the physical well-being of medical-care expenditures, are of considerable importance to the self-respect and self-confidence of family members. The stability of the ratio of such expenditures to total expenditures, at all income levels within the range studied (see table 1 and fig. 2), suggests the extent to which good grooming has been accepted as a necessary part of present-day living. In terms of dollar expenditures the amounts spent per family increased steadily at higher income levels, reaching a high of \$71 for families with incomes of \$3,000 and over, or \$15 per person at that level. (See fig. 1.) This compares with \$4 and \$5 per person per year for families with incomes from \$500 to \$900. The latter figure would allow for about one haircut a month and minimum purchases of toilet preparations.

Expenditures for Gifts, Taxes, and Miscellaneous Items, by Income Level

Gifts and contributions to relatives and other persons outside the family claimed an average of \$24 per family, or 1.6 percent of total family expenditures. (See table 2.) The amounts spent per family increased markedly from low to high income levels. (See fig. 1.) In contrast to medical- and personal-care expenditures, they showed a striking tendency to take an increasing proportion of total expenses at higher income levels; such contributions expand very rapidly when incomes permit. (See fig. 2.) The fact that the investigation was made during 1934-36, when recovery from the depression was under way but not complete, may mean that these contributions to relatives and other persons were heavier than would have been the case in a period of more normal employment.

Direct taxes (other than real estate, automobile, and sales taxes)¹¹ and other contributions to community welfare took almost as large a proportion, 1.3 percent, of total family expenditure. The average per family was \$19, and ranged from \$7 for those with incomes of \$500 to \$600 to \$48 for those with incomes of \$3,000 and over. (See table 2.) As a percentage of total family expenditure within the income range of wage earners, such outlays were much more stable from one income level to another than were gifts and contributions to individuals. (See fig. 2.)

¹¹ At the lower income levels, taxation tends to be indirect rather than direct. The percentage of income taken in direct taxes is not to be assumed to be a measure of the support of community activities by the group of families covered.

TABLE 2.—Average Expenditures for Specified Groups of Items by 14,469 Families of Wage Earners and Clerical Workers, by Income Level, in 42 Large Cities

[Data cover 12 months within the period 1934-36]

Annual net income	For- mal edu- cation	Voca- tion	Direct taxes and com- munity welfare	Gifts and contribu- tions to relatives and other persons	Mis- cel- lane- ous items	For- mal edu- cation	Voca- tion	Direct taxes and com- munity welfare	Gifts and contribu- tions to relatives and other persons	Mis- cel- lane- ous items
	Amount					Percent of total current expenditure				
	\$7	\$6	\$19	\$24	\$7	0.5	0.4	1.3	1.6	0.5
All families.....										
\$500 to \$600.....	2	2	7	5	18	.3	.3	1.1	.8	2.8
\$600 to \$900.....	2	2	10	7	5	.2	.2	1.2	.8	.6
\$900 to \$1,200.....	4	3	13	13	4	.4	.3	1.2	1.2	.4
\$1,200 to \$1,500.....	5	4	17	18	5	.4	.3	1.2	1.3	.4
\$1,500 to \$1,800.....	7	7	20	26	6	.4	.4	1.2	1.6	.4
\$1,800 to \$2,100.....	12	9	25	36	9	.6	.5	1.3	1.9	.5
\$2,100 to \$2,400.....	14	11	28	46	11	.6	.5	1.3	2.1	.5
\$2,400 to \$2,700.....	19	22	35	52	20	.8	.9	1.4	2.2	.8
\$2,700 to \$3,000.....	17	14	37	63	25	.6	.5	1.4	2.3	.9
\$3,000 and over.....	22	18	48	92	21	.7	.6	1.5	2.8	.6

Items taking half of 1 percent or less of total family expenditure were formal education, vocational expense, including such items as union dues, and miscellaneous expenditures. (See table 2.) Expenditures for these items and for community welfare all tend to be highly variable. Individual families spent from nothing to rather large amounts on each of these items; consequently averages for these items fluctuate from one income or consumption level to another much more than averages for some other items purchased much more regularly, as food.¹²

The American public-school system provides the greatest part of the educational services received by children of wage earners and clerical workers at no specific charge to the parents. Thus, the expenditures for formal education shown in table 2 do not indicate the complete cost of the education of the children in the families surveyed. They do represent, however, any direct outlays made by the family for school books or school supplies, as well as tuition or cost of such special lessons as music or dancing lessons. They also include the school cost, other than room and board, of any children attending school or college away from home.

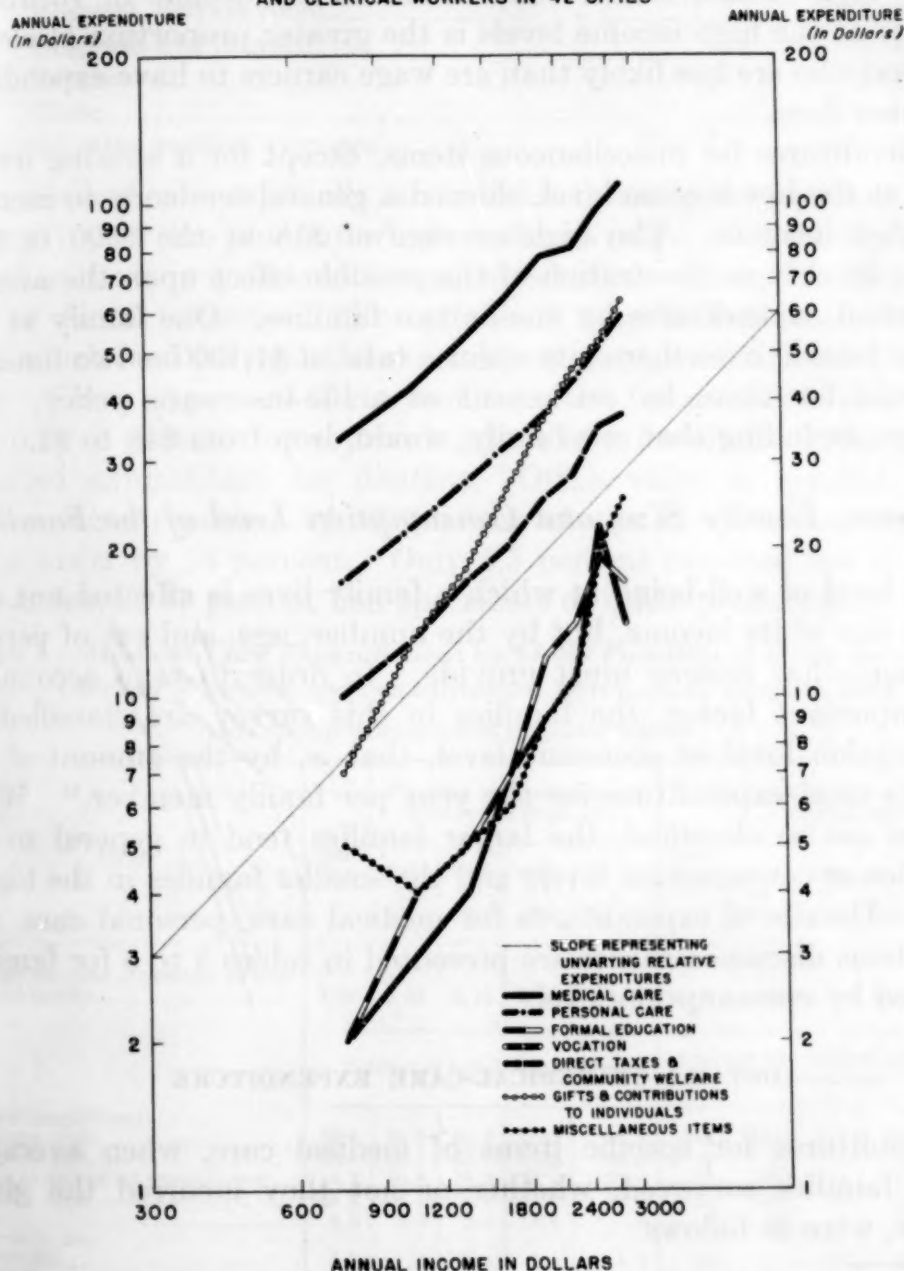
Educational and vocational expenditures showed a general tendency to increase at higher income levels, both in dollars and as a percentage of the total. (See table 2, also figs. 1 and 2.) The increase in the percentage was, however, considerably less than in the case of gifts and contributions to individuals, but more than in the case of direct

¹² Coefficients of variation have been computed to measure, in percentage terms, the extent of variation from the average of expenditures of individual families. These measures in almost every city showed the greatest variation for these small miscellaneous expenditures. (See tabular summary, tables 24A and 24B, of BLS Bulletins Nos. 639 or 641.)

Fig. 2

RELATIVE FAMILY EXPENDITURES FOR SPECIFIED GROUPS OF ITEMS AT SUCCESSIVE INCOME LEVELS 1934-1936

14,469 WHITE AND NEGRO FAMILIES OF WAGE EARNERS
AND CLERICAL WORKERS IN 42 CITIES



The slopes of the lines show the percent increase in expenditure corresponding to the percent increase in income. A slope greater than that of a 45 degree line represents a gain of the specified kind of expenditure relatively greater than the gain in income, a slope less than that of a 45 degree line represents a gain relatively smaller.

taxes and contributions to community welfare. The fact that families at higher income levels were larger means that the increase in expenditure per person is somewhat less than that in expenditure per family. Declines at the highest income levels are explained partly by the high variability of these averages. The decline for education is also due in part to the small number of children under 16 found in families at the high income levels. One factor in the decline in vocational expense at the high income levels is the greater proportion of clerical workers, who are less likely than are wage earners to have expenditure for union dues.

Expenditures for miscellaneous items, except for a striking irregularity at the low income level, showed a general tendency to increase at higher incomes. The high average of \$18 at the \$500 to \$600 income level is an illustration of the possible effect upon the average of unusual expenditures by one or two families. One family at this income level in a northern city spent a total of \$1,100 for two funerals, and paid for them by settlement of a life-insurance policy. The average, excluding that one family, would drop from \$18 to \$1.

Income, Family Size, and Consumption Level of the Family

The level of well-being at which a family lives is affected not only by the size of its income, but by the number, age, and sex of persons for whom that income must provide. In order to take account of this important factor, the families in this survey are classified by consumption level or economic level, that is, by the amount of the family's total expenditure for the year per family member.¹³ When families are so classified, the larger families tend in general to fall in the lower consumption levels and the smaller families in the higher levels. Details of expenditures for medical care, personal care, and other items discussed earlier are presented in tables 3 to 6 for families classified by consumption level.

DETAILS OF MEDICAL-CARE EXPENDITURE

Expenditures for specific items of medical care, when averaged for all families surveyed, whether or not they incurred the given expense, were as follows.

¹³ Classification by consumption level or economic level is the term used to denote classification of families by annual expenditure per unit for the total of all items of family expenditure. The unit used for this purpose is the equivalent adult male. Each member of the family, taking into account age, sex, and activity, is counted as the appropriate decimal equivalent of an adult male. For fuller explanation, see article on "Income, Family Size, and Economic Level of the Family," Monthly Labor Review, January 1940, or Appendix G of Bulletin No. 641.

	Average for all families surveyed
General practitioner:	
Home visit.....	\$6. 95
Office visit.....	6. 86
Dentist.....	10. 84
Medicine and drugs.....	9. 70
Specialist and other practitioner.....	8. 92
Accident and health insurance.....	4. 05
Hospital, private room.....	3. 60
Hospital, bed in ward.....	1. 90
Eyeglasses.....	3. 22
Clinic.....	. 45
All other medical expenses.....	2. 79

In medical care, especially, an individual family very seldom spends in any 1 year the amount which is the average. Much depends on whether there is a serious illness, or whether certain members need eye or dental attention. From table 3 may be seen the frequency with which families reported expenditures for specific items of medical care. Thus, 85 percent of the families spent for medicines and drugs, but only 1 percent for a private nurse in a hospital. Fifty percent reported expenditure for dentists. Office visits to general practitioners were reported by 43 percent of the families surveyed and home visits by 38 percent. Only 5.5 percent reported use of clinics and as few as 17 percent had specialists or other practitioners.

TABLE 3.—*Medical-Care Expenditures by 14,469 Families of Wage Earners and Clerical Workers, by Consumption Level, in 42 Large Cities*

[Data cover 12 months within the period 1934-36]

Item	All fami- lies	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—				All fami- lies	Families with annual unit expenditure of—			
		\$200 to \$300	\$500 to \$600	\$800 to \$900	\$1,100 to \$1,200		\$200 to \$300	\$500 to \$600	\$800 to \$900	\$1,100 to \$1,200
Average number of persons in economic family.....	3. 60	5. 19	3. 13	2. 38	2. 21	3. 60	5. 19	3. 13	2. 38	2. 21
		Percent of families spending					Average expenditure per family spending ¹			
General practitioner:										
Home visit.....	38. 0	38. 7	49. 2	30. 9	36. 9	18	\$16	\$17	\$23	\$27
Office visit.....	42. 7	56. 7	53. 7	44. 9	49. 6	16	6	14	26	30
Specialist and other practitioner.....	16. 7	10. 8	19. 2	20. 8	21. 0	53	37	55	71	99
Dentist.....	49. 5	38. 1	52. 9	57. 1	69. 2	22	15	22	27	35
Clinic.....	5. 5	6. 3	5. 3	3. 4	. 6	8	5	9	19	5
Nurse in home:										
Private.....	1. 3	. 7	1. 4	1. 4	4. 2	29	13	27	49	40
Visiting.....	. 4	. 3	. 4	. 3	0	15	17	20	27	0
Nurse in hospital.....	1. 1	. 5	1. 3	1. 8	4. 8	46	16	68	96	53
Hospital:										
Private room.....	6. 8	3. 2	8. 9	8. 8	12. 1	53	36	56	79	67
Bed in ward.....	4. 2	4. 6	4. 7	3. 9	1. 0	45	29	50	46	16
Medicine and drugs.....	85. 4	83. 6	86. 8	84. 3	71. 0	11	8	12	14	20
Eyeglasses.....	22. 0	18. 4	22. 9	25. 3	38. 4	15	13	15	18	15
Medical appliances.....	8. 6	5. 8	8. 6	9. 2	9. 8	2	1	3	3	4
Accident and health insurance.....	21. 5	17. 6	21. 3	25. 2	30. 0	2	20	18	21	22

¹ Average expenditure for all families, whether incurring the expense or not, may be computed by multiplying the expenditure in question by the percent of families spending for the designated item at the given consumption level.

The average outlay per family spending for a given item is always larger than the average based on all families. Such wide variations in the proportions of families incurring a given expense mean that the differences between these two averages vary greatly from item to item. The figures on page 1071 may thus be compared with those shown in table 3. Average expenditure for eyeglasses for the 22 percent of families spending was \$15, as opposed to \$3 when the average is based on all families. The average expense per family spending was greatest for specialists and for private rooms in hospitals, with nurse in hospital coming next, and bed in hospital ward, fourth. Expense for securing a private nurse in the home, sometimes used to avoid hospitalization, or following hospitalization, occasioned the next greatest item of expenditure per family spending, though only 1.3 percent had such expenditure. Dental services averaged \$22 for the year for the 50 percent of families paying for dental services. Home visits from general practitioners averaged \$18 for the 38 percent of families having them and office visits \$16 for 43 percent of the families.

Expenditures for clinic service averaged only \$8 for the 5.5 percent of families reporting such expense. As noted earlier, it is not known how many families received clinic service without charge. Except for New York City (see p. 1065), no data are available regarding service given by general practitioners, dentists, or hospitals without charge.

When families are classified by consumption level, it is found that as their economic resources become greater an increasing percentage secure eyeglasses and avail themselves of the services of specialists, dentists, and private hospital facilities. Not only do more of the families at the higher consumption levels report expense for medical attention, but the expenditures of these families are greater. This suggests that only the most urgent medical needs are satisfied when the economic resources of the family are restricted.

DETAILS OF PERSONAL-CARE EXPENDITURE

The average family expenditure of \$30 for personal care was about equally divided between services of barber and beauty shops, and toilet articles and preparations. Haircuts accounted for \$10 of the \$16 total for personal-care services, permanent waves for \$2, and other waves for \$1.70.

Toilet soap and haircuts were the most universally purchased items of personal-care expense. Ninety-six percent of the families surveyed reported expenditures for these items. (See table 4.) The family spending for haircuts averaged almost \$1 per month. This would mean approximately three 35-cent haircuts per month for all family members. Toilet soap, on the other hand, represented an average expense of a little under 40 cents a month per family. There was no tendency to increase soap expenditures at higher consumption levels, presumably because of the smaller family size at the higher levels.

Another indication of the extent of at least a small expenditure for neat personal appearance is the purchase of cosmetics and toilet preparations by 86 percent of the families and of tooth powder, tooth paste, and mouth washes by 93 percent.

For all items of personal care except haircuts and toilet soap, there is a decided tendency for a larger percentage of families to incur expenditures at higher consumption levels. This tendency is most pronounced for the shampoos and manicures, but is also quite important for shaves by barber, and for permanent and other waves. It exists, but to a much less extent, for various toilet articles and preparations. The fact that haircuts are not universally reported at the highest consumption level is undoubtedly explained by the few families with no adult male members.

TABLE 4.—*Personal-Care Expenditures by 14,469 Families of Wage Earners and Clerical Workers, by Consumption Level, in 42 Large Cities*

[Data cover 12 months within the period 1934-36]

Item	All families	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—				All families	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—			
		\$200 to \$300	\$500 to \$600	\$800 to \$900	\$1,100 to \$1,200		\$200 to \$300	\$500 to \$600	\$800 to \$900	\$1,100 to \$1,200
Average number of persons in economic family.....	3.60	5.19	3.13	2.38	2.21	3.60	5.19	3.13	2.38	2.21
	Percent of families spending					Average expenditure per family spending ¹				
Personal-care services:										
Haircuts.....	96.1	95.0	97.4	97.8	98.0	\$11	\$10	\$10	\$11	\$13
Shaves by barber.....	11.6	8.2	13.1	16.9	21.7	6	5	6	6	6
Shampoos.....	12.4	3.4	13.1	22.1	35.8	6	4	6	8	9
Manicures.....	4.4	.8	5.1	9.1	26.8	6	2	5	7	7
Permanent waves.....	40.2	17.3	43.8	49.1	51.9	5	5	5	6	6
Other waves.....	31.7	14.5	37.8	45.6	62.5	5	3	5	8	8
Other personal-care services.....	2.2	1.0	2.4	1.6	8.8	6	7	6	4	10
Toilet articles and preparations:										
Toilet soap.....	96.4	96.0	93.6	96.3	97.6	5	5	5	5	5
Tooth powder, tooth paste, mouth washes.....	92.8	88.7	93.9	94.0	97.9	4	4	5	5	5
Cosmetic and toilet preparations.....	85.7	77.8	88.0	91.2	95.5	4	3	5	6	7
Brushes, razor blades, and other toilet articles.....	78.5	70.7	80.0	83.7	92.2	3	2	3	3	3

¹ Average expenditure for all families whether incurring the expense or not may be computed by multiplying the expenditure in question by the percent of families spending for the designated item at the given consumption level.

Average expenditures per family spending for practically all of the items of personal care are remarkably stable. There is very little increase per family spending with rise in consumption level. The only exceptions are shampoos, manicures, finger waves, and cosmetics and toilet preparations, for which expenditures were notably greater at higher levels. These items partake somewhat more of the character of luxury expenditures than do those for such minimum essen-

tials as soap, tooth cleansers, and haircuts. They indicate in part the influence of advertising and the appeal of various aids to beauty and grooming.

The fact that family size was smaller at high consumption¹ levels means that all of the items of personal-care expenditures, when computed on a per person basis, increased rapidly from low to high consumption levels. Expenditures for tooth and mouth wash preparations were three and one-fourth times as great at the high consumption level as at the low, while expenditures for cosmetics and toilet preparations were seven times as great. Expenditures per person for all families and for those at low and high economic levels for the individual items of personal care are shown in table 5.

TABLE 5.—Average Expenditure per Person for Personal Care in Families of Lowest and Highest Unit Consumption Level

Item	Average expenditure per person in—		
	All families	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—	
		\$200 to \$300	\$1,100 to \$1,200
Haircuts.....	\$2.81	\$1.82	\$5.92
Shaves by barber.....	.20	.07	.61
Shampoos.....	.21	.03	1.50
Manicures.....	.07	(¹)	.83
Permanent waves.....	.53	.18	1.50
Other waves.....	.47	.09	2.31
Other personal-care services.....	.04	.01	.42
Toilet soap.....	1.29	.94	2.14
Tooth powder, tooth paste, mouth washes.....	1.13	.68	2.19
Cosmetics and toilet preparations.....	1.04	.45	3.23
Brushes, razor blades, and other toilet articles.....	.56	.27	1.46

¹ Less than ¼ cent.

The extent to which the permanent wave has become commonplace in maintaining attractive personal appearance is indicated by the fact that 40 percent of the families had such expenditure. The proportion expanded rapidly at higher consumption levels from 17 percent at the low level to 52 percent at the high level shown in table 4. The average annual expense per family spending remained about \$5 or \$6 at all consumption levels.

Other types of hairdressing were reported by 32 percent of the families, the proportion at the high level being four times that at the low level shown in table 4. Expenditures for shampoos, per family spending, also show a definite tendency to expand as means permit. The relatively small expenditure at low economic levels for shampoos and waves means that the women in families at those levels must rely to a considerable extent on their own care of the hair.

Manicures and personal-care services other than for the hair were negligible at low consumption levels, but at the highest level shown in table 4, as many as one-fourth of the families spent over 50 cents a month for manicures.

DETAILS OF EDUCATIONAL AND VOCATIONAL EXPENSE

About a third of the families had some expenditure for tuition, school books or supplies, or special lessons for family members living at home, and the average cost for those families spending was \$19. (See table 6.) The expenditure at the highest level shown in the table was almost threefold that at the lowest level shown. The percent of families having such expenditures was, however, smaller at the higher consumption levels. This is accounted for by the relative preponderance of children in families at the lower consumption levels.

TABLE 6.—*Formal Educational and Vocational Expenditures by 14,469 Families of Wage Earners and Clerical Workers, by Consumption Level, in 42 Large Cities*

[Data cover 12 months within the period 1934-36]

Item	All families	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—				All families	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—			
		\$200 to \$300	\$500 to \$600	\$800 to \$900	\$1,100 to \$1,200		\$200 to \$300	\$500 to \$600	\$800 to \$900	\$1,100 to \$1,200
Average number of persons in economic family.....	3.60	5.19	3.13	2.38	2.21	3.60	5.19	3.13	2.38	2.21
		Percent of families spending					Average expenditure per family spending ¹			
Formal education:										
Members away from home.....	1.3	1.7	1.4	1.1	0	\$58	\$26	\$50	\$183	0
Members at home.....	33.1	47.5	29.4	14.1	7.4	19	12	25	42	\$34
Vocation:										
Union dues or fees.....	22.2	18.8	24.7	27.8	31.2	26	16	25	32	38
Professional association dues or fees.....	2.1	1.0	2.2	3.8	5.0	13	5	12	17	9
Technical literature.....	1.2	.4	1.3	3.0	2.0	7	2	10	3	8

¹ Average expenditure for all families, whether incurring the expense or not, may be computed by multiplying the expenditure in question by the percent of families spending for the designated item at the given consumption level.

Very few families in this wage-earning and clerical group sent children away to school. Only 1.3 percent of the families had such expense, and the proportion declined at higher economic levels where there were fewer children. The average expenditure for such education (exclusive of room and board cost) increased from \$26 per family spending at the lowest consumption level shown in table 6 to \$183 among the few families with total annual expenditures per family member of \$800 to \$900. No families at the highest economic level reported such expense. This is explained in large part by the composition of families at the higher consumption levels. Among these families of wage earners and clerical workers, those at the high con-

sumption levels were principally small families with several adult earners and few children. In the group with no expenditures for education (those with total annual expenditure per adult equivalent of \$1,100 to \$1,200) there were only eight children under 16 in every hundred families. Average family size at that level was 2.13 and the average number of workers was 1.48.

Expenses incurred in connection with the worker's job or occupation are, in one sense, not family expenditure at all. From the point of view of computing the family's net income, they are rather an occupational expense which should be deducted from the earnings. Among families of wage earners, however, union dues, which form the greatest portion of such occupational expense, are generally thought of as family expenditures. For that reason, a category of expense called vocational expenditure is presented for these families. One-fifth of the families reported payments for union dues, as contrasted with only 2 percent reporting professional association dues or fees and 1 percent reporting expense for technical literature in the field of their jobs. The latter two items showed a rapid increase in proportion of families having such expenditures at higher consumption levels. There was an even greater proportionate increase in the percent of families paying union dues or fees. Expenditure per family for vocational expense, computed as an average for all families, whether they incurred the expense or not, is shown in table 2. Computed as an average only for the families spending, unions cost the families contributing an average of \$26 per year, professional associations half that amount, and technical literature a fourth that amount. Each of these items showed a general tendency to be greater at higher consumption levels.

DETAILS OF EXPENDITURES FOR GIFTS AND CONTRIBUTIONS, COMMUNITY WELFARE, AND MISCELLANEOUS ITEMS

Contributions to churches, synagogues, and other religious organizations were made by three-fourths of the families. Over half contributed to the community chest and over a fourth paid poll, income, or personal-property taxes. (See table 7.) About \$21 per year was the average for those contributing to religious organizations at all consumption levels, even the lowest. Community chest contributions on the other hand were made by an increasing proportion of families and the amounts per family increased at higher levels.

Taxes shown in table 7 include only poll, income, and personal-property taxes (see table 2 for average based on all families whether paying taxes or not). Taxes on owned homes were treated as a part of housing expenditure. (See *Monthly Labor Review*, April 1940.) Those for automobile licenses and other car taxes are shown as automobile expense. (See *Monthly Labor Review*, March 1940.) It was

not possible to separate sales taxes from the price of the article purchased, as families frequently could recall the total cost of an item, as a pair of shoes, but not the amount of tax included in the price. Further, since practices of retailers varied in showing the tax separately or including it in the price, many families did not know how much sales tax they had paid. Therefore, sales taxes have simply been included in the expenditure for the specific commodity.

TABLE 7.—*Taxes, Gifts, Contributions, and Miscellaneous Expenditures by 14,469 Families of Wage Earners and Clerical Workers, by Consumption Level, in 42 Large Cities*

[Data cover 12 months within the period 1934-36]

Item	All families	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—				All families	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—			
		\$200 to \$300	\$500 to \$600	\$800 to \$900	\$1,100 to \$1,200		\$200 to \$300	\$500 to \$600	\$800 to \$900	\$1,100 to \$1,200
	Percent of families spending					Average expenditure per family spending ¹				
Community welfare:										
Religious organizations.....	74.2	65.5	74.2	64.3	60.4	\$21	\$21	\$22	\$29	\$26
Community chest and other organizations.....	54.9	43.7	58.3	63.8	69.6	5	3	5	7	8
Taxes—poll, income, and personal property.....	27.3	28.7	27.0	27.0	34.2	5	4	4	5	8
Gifts and contributions:										
Christmas, birthday, etc., gifts.....	40.2	47.3	75.2	81.9	90.4	33	10	19	29	35
Support of relatives.....	11.5	9.2	19.6	25.8	38.9	91	32	51	80	135
Support of other persons.....	2.9	2.6	7.4	8.5	10.0	29	11	13	21	12
Miscellaneous:										
Funerals.....	1.4	1.0	1.3	1.7	1.7	244	153	238	344	252
Legal costs.....	1.5	1.1	1.2	2.7	1.1	53	17	73	134	24
Gardens.....	8.3	9.1	8.0	10.0	6.6	4	3	4	6	4
Family losses.....	1.4	.9	1.2	2.2	2.9	43	38	44	55	29

¹ Average expenditure for all families, whether incurring the expense or not, may be computed by multiplying the expenditure in question by the percent of families spending for the designated item at the given consumption level.

About a fourth of the families paid income, poll, or personal-property taxes, up to the highest consumption levels where the proportion increased to a third. The amounts paid increased from about \$4 to an average of \$8 per tax-paying family at the highest consumption level shown in table 7.

Gifts and contributions to individuals show extremely great expansion as more funds for spending become available. Thus, expense for Christmas and birthday gifts to persons outside the family was reported by 90 percent of families at the high consumption level as compared with 47 percent at the low level shown in table 7. The amounts devoted to this item by these families were three and a half times as great at the high as at the low level.

Support of relatives was reported by a rapidly increasing proportion of families at higher consumption levels. That is to say, as soon as the economic resources of the families permitted there was a striking

increase in the amounts spent for the assistance of less fortunate relatives. The amounts which they gave more than quadrupled from the low to the high consumption levels shown in table 7.

The proportion of families spending for the items listed under the general heading of "Miscellaneous," appears to be independent of the financial well-being of the family. With the exception of gardens, these are in general the items for which a family spends only when visited by misfortune. As could be expected, the expenditures for funerals for families incurring this expense increased from the low to the high consumption level. Average expenditures for legal costs per family spending are extremely uneven, principally because of the high variability of such averages.

Comparison of Selected Items of Medical Care and Miscellaneous Expenditures of White and Negro Families

When the economic resources of white and Negro families are the same, as measured by the amount spent per equivalent adult member, their expenditures for certain of the items discussed in this article form an interesting contrast (see table 8). At both the low and the relatively high consumption levels for which the comparisons are shown, the same general differences are found. A larger proportion of white families make expenditures for dental work than do the Negro families, and the cost to those families is greater. The fact that the percentage of Negro families spending for dental care increased at the higher consumption level is, however, an indication of a felt need for such service among the Negro group. The Negro families, on the other hand, are more apt to buy accident and health insurance and their payments for this protection are larger than those of white families who buy this type of insurance.

More Negro families contribute to the support of relatives than do the white families with comparable economic resources, and their contributions are larger. Also, more Negro families make donations to religious organizations than do white families, but the amounts given by the white families are larger.

In considering the figures shown in table 8 it must be noted that the Negro families were smaller than the white and that their incomes were lower. They had a somewhat higher average number of gainful workers and the chief earner was an unskilled laborer in a much higher proportion of the families. Total expenditure per equivalent adult male, however, for both the white and Negro families for which data are presented in table 8 placed them in the same consumption levels.

TABLE 3.—Expenditures by White and Negro Families¹ for Specified Items, at Selected Consumption Levels

[Data cover 12 months within the period 1934-36]

Item	Families with total annual unit expenditure of—				Families with total annual unit expenditure of—			
	\$200 to \$300		\$500 to \$600		\$200 to \$300		\$500 to \$600	
	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro
	Percent of families spending				Average expenditure per family spending ²			
General practitioner:								
Home visit.....	38.5	40.4	40.3	39.6	\$16	\$12	\$21	\$15
Office visit.....	34.7	28.2	46.4	33.9	10	8	17	16
Dentist.....	40.0	19.2	53.6	27.3	16	10	22	11
Clinic.....	6.5	4.6	5.3	5.6	5	5	9	3
Medicine and drugs.....	83.1	88.6	86.8	86.7	8	7	12	12
Accident and health insurance.....	15.7	36.9	21.0	34.8	18	26	18	27
Support of relatives.....	8.0	21.6	18.9	47.2	31	35	50	62
Support of other persons.....	2.5	3.8	7.5	5.2	12	6	12	17
Funerals.....	1.0	.7	1.3	3.3	160	123	228	237
Religious organizations.....	63.3	88.3	73.9	86.4	22	12	22	19
Taxes.....	29.0	26.1	27.1	21.3	4	4	4	5

¹ Negro families were surveyed in 16 of the 42 large cities in which white families were surveyed.² Average expenditure for all families, whether incurring the expense or not, may be computed by multiplying the expenditure in question by the percent of families spending for the designated item at the given consumption level.

STRIKES IN 1939¹

THE year 1939 was characterized by a moderately large number of small strikes, though there were occasional stoppages of large proportions. There were 2,613 strikes during the year, in which about 1,171,000 workers were involved. There were approximately 17,812,000 man-days of idleness during these strikes. About 43 percent of the workers involved and 51 percent of the idle man-days were accounted for by the three largest disputes of the year—the bituminous-coal stoppage in April and May, the WPA stoppages in July, and the Chrysler dispute in October and November.

There were fewer strikes in 1939 than in the preceding 2 years although the number of workers involved and man-days of idleness exceeded those in 1938, largely because of the bituminous-coal stoppage. Excluding the coal dispute, there were about the same number of workers involved and man-days idle in 1939 as in 1938.

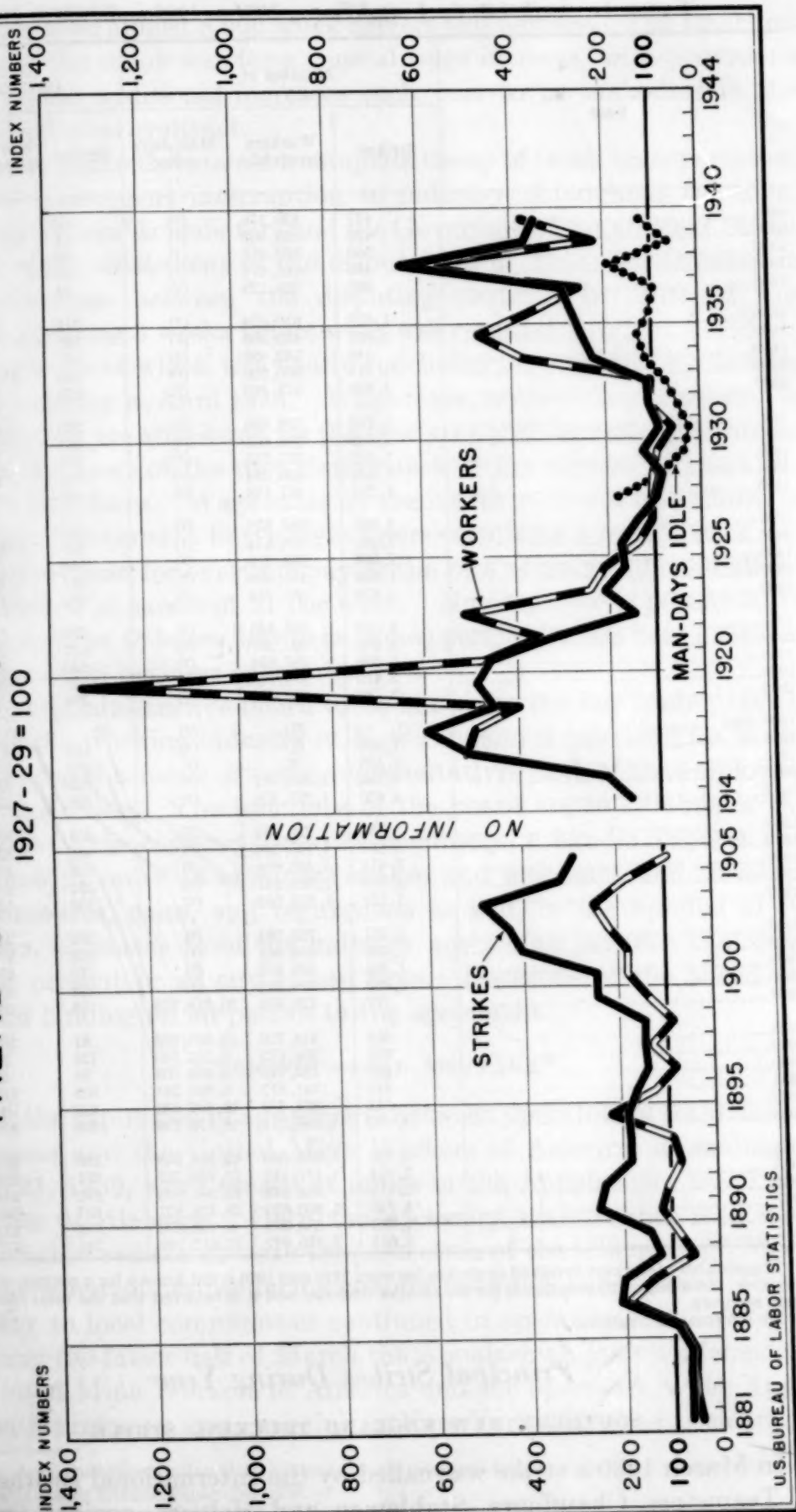
In this report no distinction is made between strikes and lock-outs, the term "strike" being used to include all stoppages of work arising from labor disputes. As in former years, the figures do not include stoppages which lasted less than a full working day or shift, nor do they include those involving fewer than six workers.

Original information and notices concerning strikes are obtained by the Bureau mostly from the public press, union publications, and trade journals. Information is obtained also from the various State and Federal labor boards and conciliation services. When a notice of a strike is obtained, letters and report forms are sent to representatives of the union and employers involved, to obtain basic statistical information. For 10 strikes about which notices were received such reports could not be obtained. Except for these, it is believed that figures in this report cover all strikes which occurred in the United States during 1939, although it is possible that a few minor disputes escaped attention.

¹ Prepared by Don Q. Crowther, under the direction of Florence Peterson, chief of the Bureau's Division of Industrial Relations.

TREND OF STRIKES, 1881-1939 1927-29 = 100

CHART I.



U.S. BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in the United States, 1881 to 1905 and 1914 to 1939*

Year	Number of—			Index (1927-29=100)		
	Strikes	Workers involved ¹	Man-days idle	Strikes	Workers involved	Man-days idle
1881.....	477	130,176	(2)	64	42	(2)
1882.....	476	158,802	(2)	64	51	(2)
1883.....	506	170,275	(2)	68	55	(2)
1884.....	485	165,175	(2)	65	53	(2)
1885.....	695	258,129	(2)	93	83	(2)
1886.....	1,572	610,024	(2)	211	196	(2)
1887.....	1,503	439,306	(2)	202	141	(2)
1888.....	946	162,880	(2)	127	52	(2)
1889.....	1,111	260,290	(2)	149	84	(2)
1890.....	1,897	373,499	(2)	255	120	(2)
1891.....	1,786	329,953	(2)	240	106	(2)
1892.....	1,359	238,685	(2)	183	77	(2)
1893.....	1,375	287,756	(2)	185	93	(2)
1894.....	1,404	690,044	(2)	189	222	(2)
1895.....	1,255	407,188	(2)	169	131	(2)
1896.....	1,066	248,838	(2)	143	80	(2)
1897.....	1,110	416,154	(2)	149	134	(2)
1898.....	1,098	263,219	(2)	148	85	(2)
1899.....	1,838	431,889	(2)	247	139	(2)
1900.....	1,839	567,719	(2)	247	182	(2)
1901.....	3,012	563,843	(2)	405	181	(2)
1902.....	3,240	691,507	(2)	435	222	(2)
1903.....	3,648	787,834	(2)	490	253	(2)
1904.....	2,419	573,815	(2)	325	184	(2)
1905.....	2,186	302,434	(2)	294	97	(2)
1906-1913.....	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
1914.....	1,204	(2)	(2)	162	(2)	(2)
1915.....	1,593	(2)	(2)	214	(2)	(2)
1916 ¹	2,789	1,599,917	(2)	509	514	(2)
1917.....	4,450	1,227,254	(2)	598	395	(2)
1918.....	3,353	1,239,989	(2)	451	399	(2)
1919.....	3,630	4,160,348	(2)	488	1,337	(2)
1920.....	3,411	1,463,054	(2)	458	470	(2)
1921.....	2,385	1,099,247	(2)	321	353	(2)
1922.....	1,112	1,612,562	(2)	149	519	(2)
1923.....	1,553	756,584	(2)	209	243	(2)
1924.....	1,249	654,641	(2)	168	210	(2)
1925.....	1,301	428,416	(2)	175	138	(2)
1926.....	1,035	329,592	(2)	139	106	(2)
1927.....	707	329,939	26,218,628	95	106	178
1928.....	604	314,210	12,631,863	81	101	86
1929.....	921	288,572	5,351,540	124	93	36
1930.....	637	182,975	3,316,808	86	59	23
1931.....	810	341,817	6,893,244	109	110	47
1932.....	841	324,210	10,502,033	113	104	71
1933.....	1,695	1,168,272	16,872,128	228	376	115
1934.....	1,856	1,466,695	19,591,949	250	472	133
1935.....	2,014	1,117,213	15,456,337	271	359	105
1936.....	2,172	788,648	13,901,956	292	254	94
1937.....	4,740	1,860,621	28,424,857	637	598	193
1938.....	2,772	688,376	9,148,273	373	221	62
1939.....	2,613	1,170,992	17,812,219	351	377	121

¹ The number of workers involved in strikes between 1916 and 1926 is not known for a portion of the total. However, the missing information is for the smaller disputes and it is believed that the total here given is fairly accurate.

² No information available.

Principal Strikes During Year

SOUTHERN NEW ENGLAND TRUCKING STRIKE

In March 1939 a strike was called by the International Brotherhood of Teamsters, Chauffeurs, Stablemen and Helpers, against trucking firms in Rhode Island, Connecticut, and part of Massachusetts, which

finally involved almost 8,000 truck drivers and helpers. The principal demand of the union was for a general wage increase, with provisions for stipulated additional increases each year to be embodied in the terms of a 3-year contract.

Since the strike threatened a complete tie-up of truck transportation with the consequent interruption to industry throughout the area, State and Federal conciliators and the Governors of the affected States urged a quick settlement of the dispute and at times participated in the conferences between the disputing parties. In spite of this assistance, it was 3 weeks before work was resumed.

The agreement which was finally concluded is to remain in effect for 4 years, expiring in April 1943. Wage rates, representing increases for most workers, are stipulated for the first year with increases, varying in amount, for most of the men during each of the successive years the contract is in force. Wage rates by the fourth year will be uniform in all the areas covered. Forty-eight hours constitute a week's work and there is provision for overtime pay at the rate of time and one-half for hours worked in excess of 51 per week. No employee is permitted to work more than 48 hours, however, unless permission has been obtained from the union business agent.

A joint administrative board to be known as the fair trade practice board of the trucking industry of New England is provided for in the agreement and consists of seven representatives each of the employers and of the union. The functions of the board are to administer the provisions of the contract, provide machinery to handle disputes and grievances in order to eliminate strikes and lock-outs, and to adopt such measures, rules, and regulations as will, in the opinion of its members, eliminate from the industry any unfair practice that may exist at present or at any future time. Decisions of the board are final and binding on all parties to the agreement.

BITUMINOUS-COAL STOPPAGE ²

With the expiration of agreements between operators of bituminous-coal mines and the United Mine Workers of America, at midnight, March 31, 1939, work ceased at mines in the Appalachian area ³ and the State of Alabama. Only the necessary maintenance men were authorized to remain at work for protection of the idle mining properties; also a few mines producing coal for hospitals and utilities of vital necessity to local communities continued in operation.

During the latter half of March the Appalachian joint conference of the United Mine Workers of America and the operators of the Appalachian bituminous area, meeting in New York City, had been trying

² For a more detailed description of the bituminous-coal stoppage, including the text of the new agreement, see *Monthly Labor Review*, September 1939.

³ Includes bituminous mines in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Michigan, Maryland, West Virginia, eastern Kentucky, Virginia, and Tennessee.

to agree on terms of a new contract. The negotiators had so narrowed the issues that the union was willing to renew the old contract, provided the operators would consent to one of two changes—the elimination of the penalty clause, or exclusive recognition and the union shop. The penalty clause in the old agreement imposed a penalty of \$1 per man per day in most districts for any strike or lock-out in violation of the agreement.

The shut-down became effective in the Appalachian fields and in Alabama on April 1. When no agreement had been reached by April 20, the union gave the 15 days' notice required under the extension agreements for the midwestern and western fields, and the shut-down became practically industry-wide by May 5, with around 330,000 workers idle.

Federal conciliators and the Secretary of Labor participated in the joint conferences of the operators and miners and, on invitation from the President, representatives of the two groups met at the White House on May 9. On May 11, when no agreement had been reached as requested by the President, the union issued orders to its outlying district presidents to arrange 2-year agreements in areas where operators would accept the union-shop provision which the Appalachian operators had thus far rejected.

On May 12, when an agreement covering the entire Appalachian area appeared hopeless, it was decided that any individual operators and association members willing to do so could sign the all-union agreement in order that production could be resumed in at least part of the mines. The agreement was accepted by 15 of the 21 employers' associations and work was thereupon resumed throughout the western, midwestern, and most of the eastern fields. During the following week agreements were signed by nearly all the remaining associations and individual companies which had refused to sign on May 12, the major exception being the Harlan County (Ky.) Coal Operators Association.

In Harlan County the National Guard was called out when some companies tried to operate their mines without signing the new agreement. Work in some mines was gradually resumed as operators signed individually. Finally, on July 19, the Harlan County Coal Operators Association signed an agreement which omitted the penalty clause but did not provide for the closed shop. With the exception of a part of the Illinois fields under contract with the Progressive Mine Workers, this brought practically the entire bituminous-coal industry under agreement with the United Mine Workers of America.

BRIGGS MANUFACTURING CO. STRIKE, DETROIT

This strike, called by the United Automobile Workers of America (C. I. O.), began on May 22, 1939. More than 15,000 Briggs workers were involved and since the firm manufactured automobile

bodies for other companies, the shortage of bodies resulting from the tie-up made 50,000 or more workers idle in other plants.

The union agreement with the Briggs company expired May 16, and the negotiation of a new agreement was delayed by the existence of numerous grievances which the union contended must be settled before negotiations could proceed. The more important of these grievances concerned the discharge of a number of union men and the question whether, at the beginning of a shift, the men should get their tools on company or on individual time.

Settlement negotiations which got under way immediately were threatened when representatives of an independent or unaffiliated group of workers, formerly a part of the United Automobile Workers, asked to be represented in the meetings and met separately with company officials on one or two occasions. The National Labor Relations Board offered to hold a consent election to settle any question concerning the proper bargaining agent but the offer was not accepted by the unaffiliated group.

After a week of strike activity the company and union agreed to submit the list of grievances to the Federal conciliator for arbitration. Negotiations on the new contract were then started, the major obstacle to agreement being the union's demand for a union shop. Within a few days the National Labor Relations Board began hearings to determine the bargaining agent, and shortly thereafter (June 7) the strike was called off with the understanding that the future of the union's status would be determined by the results of the NLRB election. In November the Board certified the U. A. W. (C. I. O.) as sole bargaining agent at the company's plants, both in the Detroit area and at Evansville, Ind.

WPA STOPPAGES

The widespread stoppages on WPA projects in July 1939 were in protest against the abandonment of the former wage policy, in the new relief appropriation bill passed by Congress for the fiscal year 1939-40. The building-trades unions were especially opposed, as they felt that abandonment of the prevailing-wage principle would affect union wage scales on private construction as well as on WPA projects. In many of the cities the protest stoppages of work on WPA projects were led by the local building-trades councils.

Immediately after the stoppages occurred, the Work Projects Administration announced that it would enforce its regulation that all workers who absented themselves from work for 5 days would be dropped from the WPA rolls. The result was that many workers were out only a short time, returning to work within the 5-day limit. Thousands of others remained away more than 5 days and were dropped from the rolls. As workers returned in some places, new

protest stoppages developed in other localities so that the demonstrations continued until after the middle of July. Considerable violence developed in connection with the protests in Minneapolis, and a number of persons were arrested and fined.

The number of WPA workers who were idle for 1 or more days in connection with these stoppages was about 123,000. Many more than this were idle for a part of a day, as a result of mass meetings and short demonstrations which were held in protest against the new WPA regulations.

CHRYSLER DISPUTE

The United Automobile Workers of America obtained its first widespread union agreement with the Chrysler Corporation early in April 1937 at the close of a 1-month strike. In this agreement, the union was recognized as the collective-bargaining agency for its members. It was renewed, upon expiration, for 1 year—until March 31, 1939. Monthly extensions were made thereafter until September 30, 1939. In the meantime, there had been a split in the union and the National Labor Relations Board had announced plans to conduct elections to determine whether the C. I. O. or the A. F. of L. union had a majority representation. The elections were held September 27, the U. A. W. (C. I. O.) winning by a large majority in each of 11 of the 13 plants. The U. A. W. (A. F. of L.) obtained a majority at the Evansville, Ind., plant, and in Kokomo, Ind., a majority voted for neither union.

On October 6, the company accused the union of conducting a slow-down strike in one of the Dodge plants and discharged a number of workers as a disciplinary measure. Within a day or two, some 20,000 men were idle at the Dodge plants, the company contending that the stoppage was due to a union-ordered slow-down, and the union claiming it was a lock-out after an attempted speed-up on the new 1940 models. Within a few days other Chrysler plants were closed, affecting a total of approximately 50,000 workers.

As negotiations to settle the dispute and draft a new contract got under way, the union demanded joint study and control of production standards, a wage increase of 10 cents per hour, the union shop, provision for arbitration of grievances, and seniority rights. In return the union promised that there would be no strikes during the term of the agreement.

Federal and State conciliators participated in the negotiations for settlement. While conferences were under way, the company received a request for recognition of the United Foremen's and Supervisors' Union, affiliated with the C. I. O., and immediately demanded that this request be withdrawn before negotiations could proceed. A few days after the foremen's union withdrew its request for recognition, an agreement settling the dispute was signed (November 29).

Meanwhile, on November 16, the National Labor Relations Board had certified the U. A. W. (C. I. O.) as the collective-bargaining agent for the 11 plants as one unit.

The new agreement did not provide for a union shop but recognized the union as exclusive bargaining agent for production employees in the 11 plants of the company, excluding only one department (die-sinkers) in the Newcastle, Ind., plant in which the A. F. of L. Machinists' Union had been certified as bargaining agent. Definite grievance machinery was created, with an appeal board (composed of two executives of the corporation and two official representatives of the union) which must render a decision on any dispute within 30 days after being submitted. Any complaint or grievance concerning production standards is to be settled through the regular grievance machinery. A wage increase of 3 cents per hour was granted and the differential between wage rates in Detroit plants and those in plants outside Detroit was to be narrowed by 1 cent. Seniority rights were provided for. There are to be no strikes or lock-outs before the entire grievance procedure has been exhausted and in no case before a negotiating period of 5 days. The contract can be terminated immediately if a strike is called.

The agreement runs until November 30, 1940, and from year to year thereafter unless either party notifies the other, between November 1 and 15 in any year, of its desire to terminate the agreement.

CALIFORNIA COTTON PICKERS' STRIKE

The cotton pickers' strike, which began early in October, involved approximately 15,000 workers and extended into Kern, Tulare, Kings, Fresno, Madera, and Merced Counties. It was conducted by the United Cannery, Agricultural, Packing and Allied Workers of America, in an attempt to raise the wage rate for cotton picking from 80 cents per hundred pounds to \$1.25. The strike was not formally terminated until late in November, although many of the pickers had returned to work earlier. Late in October the union offered to compromise for \$1 per hundred pounds and sent workers back into the fields wherever this rate was paid. When the strike was ended the union claimed that the \$1 rate was fairly widely established and that signed contracts were obtained in a few cases.

SHIP CLERKS' STRIKE, SAN FRANCISCO

The ship clerks' strike in San Francisco began November 10, 1939, and kept shipping activities at that port practically at a standstill for nearly 8 weeks. Approximately 600 ship clerks were involved and, when checking of cargo ceased and picket lines were formed at the docks, about 4,000 longshoremen were made idle also.

Contracts between the Ship Clerks' Association and the Dock Checkers Employers Association had expired September 30. Work continued after that date until negotiations for a new agreement became deadlocked and the strike was called.

Prior to September 30 there were two contracts—one covering "daily" workers, and the other covering workers employed on a monthly basis. The union now sought one contract to cover both classes of workers, with provisions which would establish union preference in employment for both daily and monthly clerks, registration of all employees in the industry for the purpose of protecting the jobs of the men in the industry at that time, adoption of the principle of equalization of work opportunity and earnings similar to that practiced through the longshore hiring hall, and reduction of the hours of monthly clerks from 44 to 42 hours per week.

Local, State, and Federal officials participated in the mediation conferences until January 3, 1940, when a back-to-work agreement was signed which provided that all employees were to return to work without discrimination. Union preferential hiring and registration of monthly men was not granted. Except for this, all issues still in dispute at the end of a negotiating period which was to last at least 10 days, were to be submitted to arbitration.

Negotiations continued for about a month, and on February 7 a contract was signed covering the terms on which the parties had been able to agree. Some matters—wage and hour adjustments for monthly clerks, equalization of earnings for daily clerks, and vacations—were submitted to a board of arbitration.

Monthly Trend of 1939 Strikes

Strikes in 1939 followed, substantially, the usual seasonal trend, increasing in number during the spring months, maintaining a fairly high level during the summer and fall, and then diminishing in number with the approach of winter. Strikes were more numerous in April (281) than in any other month of the year, and the smallest number was in December (106). Likewise, April was the high month in terms of number of workers involved and man-days of idleness and December was the low month. The bituminous-coal stoppage accounted for the extremely high number of workers involved and the large amount of idleness in April.

In 1938 the greatest number of strikes and of man-days of idleness occurred in May, with the smallest numbers in January. The

greatest number of workers involved, however, was in September although the smallest number was in January. Comparative monthly figures for the 2 years are given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Strikes in 1938 and 1939, by Months

Month	Number of strikes—				Workers involved in strikes—				Man-days idle during month	
	Beginning in month		In progress during month		Beginning in month		In progress during month			
	1938	1939	1938	1939	1938	1939	1938	1939	1938	1939
Year	2, 772	2, 613	-----	-----	688, 376	1, 170, 962	-----	-----	9, 148, 273	17, 812, 219
January	168	203	288	323	35, 329	51, 159	55, 850	72, 427	473, 289	513, 460
February	198	204	327	343	53, 175	68, 252	77, 486	88, 267	514, 111	553, 138
March	274	210	421	349	56, 759	43, 337	105, 962	64, 660	767, 856	618, 147
April	281	281	456	431	78, 666	396, 166	110, 950	425, 748	838, 158	4, 902, 238
May	300	258	495	434	83, 029	95, 239	124, 682	457, 407	1, 174, 052	3, 547, 868
June	219	245	424	407	52, 801	62, 534	95, 854	127, 474	871, 002	958, 127
July	208	251	387	389	50, 193	175, 542	85, 672	211, 548	776, 237	1, 168, 382
August	262	275	434	448	48, 378	79, 670	81, 052	118, 772	830, 987	1, 101, 419
September	222	197	384	373	96, 399	36, 846	133, 357	103, 538	989, 916	862, 485
October	256	205	406	356	52, 703	106, 628	113, 074	139, 608	842, 202	1, 508, 120
November	207	178	372	317	43, 128	43, 239	75, 445	130, 341	557, 903	1, 664, 574
December	177	106	310	222	37, 816	12, 350	62, 160	37, 122	512, 560	384, 261

Industries Affected

The industries most affected by disputes in 1939, as measured in terms of man-days idle, were bituminous-coal mining (7,303,000) and automobile manufacturing (2,535,000). Of the nearly 18,000,000 man-days idle during the year as a result of all strikes, about 42 percent were in the mining industries, 15 percent were in the transportation-equipment manufacturing industries, a little more than 7 percent were in the textile (including clothing) industries, and nearly 5 percent were in the transportation and communication industries. Of the 1,171,000 workers involved, about 33 percent were in the mining industries, 12 percent were on WPA projects, 11 percent were in transportation-equipment manufacturing, 8 percent were in textiles, and 7 percent were in the transportation and communication industries. As for the number of strikes, nearly 21 percent were in the textile industries (small strikes in the women's clothing industry mostly), 12 percent were in building and construction, 11 percent were in retail and wholesale trade, and 10 percent were in transportation and communication.

TABLE 3.—*Strikes in 1939, by Industry*

Industry	Number of strikes beginning in 1939	Number of workers involved	Man-days idle during 1939
All industries	2, 613	1, 170, 962	17, 812, 219
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery	57	14, 466	212, 760
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills	10	6, 067	80, 034
Cast-iron pipe and fittings	3	679	17, 333
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cutlery) and edge tools	1	19	152
Forgings, iron and steel	3	504	6, 062
Hardware	3	498	26, 856
Plumbers' supplies and fixtures	3	238	4, 284
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings	3	171	1, 595
Stoves	7	1, 178	9, 036
Structural and ornamental metalwork	2	425	2, 167
Tin cans and other tinware	6	1, 324	13, 610
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws)	1	736	12, 512
Wire and wire products	6	1, 153	13, 037
Other	9	1, 474	26, 082
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	85	25, 027	432, 288
Agricultural implements	2	174	18, 530
Cash registers, adding machines, and typewriters	1	9	117
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies	20	4, 613	96, 195
Engines, turbines, tractors, and water wheels	2	8, 884	125, 070
Foundry and machine-shop products	30	4, 637	95, 405
Machine tools (power driven)	3	871	6, 815
Radios and phonographs	2	53	329
Other	25	5, 786	90, 827
Transportation equipment	56	133, 635	2, 656, 269
Aircraft	2	1, 263	85, 419
Automobiles, bodies and parts	44	129, 333	2, 535, 444
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad	1	650	1, 950
Shipbuilding	9	2, 389	33, 456
Nonferrous metals and their products	32	6, 180	167, 507
Aluminum manufactures	2	292	641
Brass, bronze, and copper products	2	591	33, 832
Clocks, watches, and other time-recording devices	1	400	10, 726
Jewelry	6	125	3, 361
Lighting equipment	5	198	8, 841
Silverware and plated ware	1	175	1, 925
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc	5	3, 137	93, 362
Stamped and enameled ware	5	723	7, 689
Other	5	539	7, 130
Lumber and allied products	170	31, 145	799, 543
Furniture	67	8, 222	144, 134
Millwork and planing	22	4, 170	160, 422
Sawmills and logging camps	42	14, 632	398, 895
Other	39	4, 121	96, 092
Stone, clay, and glass products	53	11, 350	136, 901
Brick, tile, and terra cotta	23	2, 367	48, 884
Cement	1	32	576
Glass	6	3, 619	17, 738
Marble, granite, slate, and other products	4	1, 254	27, 170
Pottery	2	660	3, 176
Other	17	3, 418	39, 357
Textiles and their products	539	90, 732	1, 320, 994
Fabrics	92	30, 516	606, 038
Carpets and rugs	3	2, 265	7, 292
Cotton goods	24	10, 947	350, 536
Cotton small wares	2	206	3, 468
Dyeing and finishing textiles	8	1, 728	18, 784
Silk and rayon goods	21	6, 667	74, 800
Woolen and worsted goods	10	5, 352	47, 811
Other	24	3, 351	103, 347
Wearing apparel	447	60, 216	714, 956
Clothing, men's	20	9, 577	43, 730
Clothing, women's	350	37, 702	453, 896
Corsets and allied garments	1	400	2, 800
Men's furnishings	7	2, 069	24, 788
Hats, caps, and millinery	13	3, 173	15, 655
Shirts and collars	5	1, 622	19, 497
Hosiery	13	2, 024	62, 439
Knit goods	34	3, 396	51, 733
Other	4	253	40, 418

TABLE 3.—Strikes in 1939, by Industry—Continued

Industry	Number of strikes beginning in 1939	Number of workers involved	Man-days idle during 1939
Leather and its manufactures	46	9,492	184,312
Boots and shoes.....	22	5,900	114,405
Leather.....	6	641	26,836
Other leather goods.....	18	2,951	43,071
Food and kindred products	148	29,580	394,943
Baking.....	42	5,635	34,547
Beverages.....	16	2,852	40,709
Butter.....	1	31	31
Canning and preserving.....	29	6,627	105,771
Confectionery.....	4	467	13,713
Flour and grain mills.....	8	548	6,231
Ice cream.....	4	47	430
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	25	7,447	93,208
Sugar refining, cane.....	2	4,296	85,788
Other.....	17	1,610	14,515
Tobacco manufactures	4	4,796	73,665
Cigars.....	3	724	45,161
Cigarettes.....	1	4,072	28,504
Paper and printing	58	5,093	181,721
Boxes, paper.....	8	1,523	73,521
Paper and pulp.....	5	544	14,059
Printing and publishing:			
Book and job.....	6	119	1,285
Newspapers and periodicals.....	15	704	50,185
Other.....	24	2,203	42,671
Chemicals and allied products	39	13,718	391,820
Chemicals.....	7	1,686	29,267
Cottonseed oil, cake, and meal.....	2	204	12,725
Druggists' preparations.....	2	78	204
Fertilizers.....	2	690	3,090
Paints and varnishes.....	5	154	3,716
Petroleum refining.....	3	486	75,550
Rayon and allied products.....	2	9,206	235,492
Soap.....	2	378	12,724
Other.....	14	834	19,052
Rubber products	19	9,694	73,888
Rubber boots and shoes.....	1	2,400	2,400
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	5	4,798	20,102
Other rubber goods.....	13	2,496	51,366
Miscellaneous manufacturing	83	9,290	155,082
Electric light, power, and manufactured gas.....	4	883	9,797
Broom and brush.....	2	194	3,303
Furriers and fur factories.....	15	1,078	25,969
Other.....	62	7,135	116,013
Extraction of minerals	64	383,432	7,464,581
Coal mining, anthracite.....	25	22,664	77,909
Coal mining, bituminous.....	25	355,383	7,302,556
Metalliferous mining.....	6	1,622	44,740
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	6	3,493	35,706
Other.....	2	270	3,670
Transportation and communication	252	86,556	856,915
Water transportation.....	100	42,773	506,245
Motortruck transportation.....	105	27,229	241,518
Motorbus transportation.....	14	1,469	10,559
Taxis and miscellaneous.....	25	14,524	75,667
Electric railroad.....	1	6	18
Telephone and telegraph.....	2	349	19,640
Air transportation.....	2	128	2,098
Radio broadcasting and transmitting.....	2	48	1,140
Other.....	1	30	30
Trade	283	26,236	425,689
Wholesale.....	77	6,862	100,565
Retail.....	206	19,374	325,124

TABLE 3.—*Strikes in 1939, by Industry—Continued*

Industry	Number of strikes beginning in 1939	Number of workers involved	Man-days idle during 1939
Domestic and personal service	161	21, 134	277, 402
Hotels, restaurants, and boarding houses.....	68	5, 014	71, 075
Personal service, barbers, and beauty parlors.....	1	23	1, 104
Laundries.....	49	3, 733	107, 201
Dyeing, cleaning, and pressing.....	24	5, 551	71, 053
Elevator and maintenance workers (when not attached to specific industry).....	12	6, 706	25, 616
Other.....	7	107	1, 353
Professional service	34	3, 317	35, 098
Recreation and amusement.....	26	2, 073	27, 515
Professional.....	2	326	3, 406
Semiprofessional, attendants, and helpers.....	6	918	4, 165
Building and construction	320	70, 097	633, 488
Buildings, exclusive of PWA.....	183	50, 601	424, 884
All other construction (bridges, docks, etc., and PWA buildings).....	137	19, 496	208, 604
Agriculture and fishing	39	36, 754	477, 363
Agriculture.....	25	26, 207	194, 880
Fishing.....	14	10, 547	282, 483
WPA, relief, and resettlement projects	33	144, 920	428, 242
Other nonmanufacturing industries	38	4, 340	30, 780

States Affected

Pennsylvania had more workers involved in strikes and more idleness because of strikes in 1939 than any other State, although there were less than half as many strikes in Pennsylvania as in New York. Over 15 percent of the total workers involved in strikes and 17 percent of the total idleness during 1939 were in Pennsylvania. New York, with more than one-fourth of the country's strikes, had about 12 percent of the total workers involved but only 7 percent of the total man-days idle. Michigan, with 11 percent of the total workers involved, had 14 percent of the total idleness. West Virginia, owing principally to the general bituminous-coal stoppage, had 8 percent of the total workers involved and 12 percent of the total idleness.

Strike figures for the various States appear in table 4. The interstate strikes have been counted in this table, except in the total, as separate strikes in each State. For example, a strike extending into both New York and New Jersey was counted in the New York figures as one strike and in the New Jersey figures as one strike, with a proper division of the workers involved and man-days idle.

TABLE 4.—Strikes in 1939, by States

State	Number of strikes beginning in 1939	Workers involved			Man-days idle during 1939	
		Number	Percent of total	Average per strike	Number	Percent of total
All States.....	1 2,613	1, 170, 962	100. 0	448	17, 812, 219	100. 0
Alabama.....	20	14, 434	1. 2	722	494, 788	2. 8
Arizona.....	7	536	(¹)	77	8, 319	(¹)
Arkansas.....	12	2, 187	. 2	182	40, 677	. 2
California.....	215	83, 679	7. 1	389	1, 038, 109	5. 8
Colorado.....	17	8, 018	. 7	472	75, 986	. 4
Connecticut.....	38	10, 609	. 9	279	92, 534	. 5
Delaware.....	5	252	(¹)	50	3, 768	(¹)
District of Columbia.....	23	5, 878	. 5	256	64, 989	. 4
Florida.....	20	2, 330	. 2	117	80, 800	. 5
Georgia.....	17	2, 128	. 2	125	73, 100	. 4
Idaho.....	2	116	(¹)	58	1, 558	(¹)
Illinois.....	151	74, 017	6. 3	490	606, 953	3. 4
Indiana.....	79	30, 838	2. 6	390	381, 290	2. 1
Iowa.....	42	8, 665	. 7	206	85, 070	. 5
Kansas.....	11	7, 482	. 6	680	30, 245	. 2
Kentucky.....	19	61, 218	5. 2	3, 222	1, 244, 742	7. 0
Louisiana.....	23	1, 665	. 1	72	21, 950	. 1
Maine.....	10	1, 989	. 2	199	15, 384	. 1
Maryland.....	31	14, 603	1. 2	471	269, 709	1. 5
Massachusetts.....	116	34, 832	3. 0	300	346, 417	1. 9
Michigan.....	89	130, 410	11. 2	1, 465	2, 499, 115	14. 1
Minnesota.....	26	18, 742	1. 6	721	107, 033	. 6
Mississippi.....	7	3, 543	. 3	506	39, 766	. 2
Missouri.....	67	13, 305	1. 1	199	243, 924	1. 4
Montana.....	6	5, 589	. 5	932	20, 315	. 1
Nebraska.....	6	587	. 1	98	29, 146	. 2
Nevada.....	2	300	(¹)	150	850	(¹)
New Hampshire.....	9	1, 590	. 1	177	10, 776	. 1
New Jersey.....	190	29, 550	2. 5	156	539, 476	3. 0
New Mexico.....	6	2, 979	. 3	497	20, 540	. 1
New York.....	726	135, 984	11. 7	187	1, 236, 547	6. 9
North Carolina.....	15	7, 936	. 7	529	101, 624	. 6
North Dakota.....	7	1, 555	. 1	222	20, 450	. 1
Ohio.....	96	50, 458	4. 3	526	768, 961	4. 3
Oklahoma.....	13	3, 084	. 3	237	71, 225	. 4
Oregon.....	39	11, 455	1. 0	294	139, 029	. 8
Pennsylvania.....	315	179, 320	15. 4	569	3, 043, 306	17. 2
Rhode Island.....	18	7, 588	. 6	422	117, 076	. 7
South Carolina.....	12	4, 786	. 4	399	108, 174	. 6
South Dakota.....	3	53	(¹)	18	222	(¹)
Tennessee.....	33	10, 495	. 9	318	239, 516	1. 3
Texas.....	46	6, 209	. 5	135	132, 501	. 7
Utah.....	10	4, 708	. 4	471	39, 183	. 2
Vermont.....	2	1, 010	. 1	505	8, 180	(¹)
Virginia.....	26	14, 249	1. 2	548	307, 733	1. 7
Washington.....	66	21, 949	1. 9	333	438, 995	2. 5
West Virginia.....	26	94, 626	8. 2	3, 639	2, 166, 032	12. 2
Wisconsin.....	55	39, 426	3. 4	717	366, 136	2. 1
Wyoming.....	1	4, 000	. 3	4, 000	20, 000	. 1

¹ The sum of this column is more than 2,613. This is due to the fact that 67 strikes which extended across State lines have been counted, in this table, as separate strikes in each State affected, with the proper allocation of number of workers involved and man-days idle.

² Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Cities Affected

There were more strikes in New York City (597) in 1939 than in any 10 other cities combined. The New York strikes were small on the average, however, and were of comparatively short duration. Although more than 20 percent of the Nation's strikes were in New York City, only about 10 percent of the total workers involved were in these strikes, and only 6 percent of the total idleness caused by

strikes was in New York. Detroit, Mich., with only 51 strikes, had almost as many workers involved as New York and had more than twice as many man-days idle.

The six cities having the most strikes in 1939 were, in order, New York, Philadelphia, Los Angeles, San Francisco, Detroit, and Chicago. Those with the most workers involved in strikes were, in order, New York, Detroit, Philadelphia, San Francisco, Milwaukee, and Boston. Those having the most idleness because of strikes were Detroit, New York, San Francisco, Philadelphia, Los Angeles, and Chicago.

Thirty-seven cities in the United States had 10 or more strikes during the year. Figures for each of these cities are shown in table 5, together with figures for 37 other cities for which data have been published in previous years.

A number of strikes in 1939 extended into two or more cities. In table 5 these intercity strikes have been regarded as separate strikes in each city affected, counting for each city only the workers who were idle in that city. A strike included with figures for a given city, therefore, might have been only a part of a larger strike.

TABLE 5.—*Strikes in 1939 in Cities Which Had 10 or More Strikes in Any Year from 1927 to 1939*

City	Number of strikes beginning in 1939	Number of workers involved	Man-days idle during 1939	City	Number of strikes beginning in 1939	Number of workers involved	Man-days idle during 1939
Akron, Ohio.....	7	4,370	9,733	New Haven, Conn.....	4	1,307	18,352
Allentown, Pa.....	10	2,083	62,914	New Orleans, La.....	12	908	10,327
Atlanta, Ga.....	11	895	9,235	New York (Greater).....	597	115,506	1,033,934
Baltimore, Md.....	16	2,124	20,428	Norfolk, Va.....	6	1,095	7,404
Birmingham, Ala.....	4	73	2,530	Paducah, Ky.....	1	13	39
Boston, Mass.....	29	14,373	113,748	Passaic, N. J.....	14	1,974	14,104
Buffalo, N. Y.....	17	3,042	16,882	Paterson, N. J.....	33	3,510	56,337
Chattanooga, Tenn.....	12	1,102	17,648	Pawtucket, R. I.....	4	539	4,510
Chicago, Ill.....	49	8,688	122,178	Peoria, Ill.....	8	2,430	35,746
Cincinnati, Ohio.....	8	1,480	36,745	Philadelphia, Pa.....	95	27,681	249,003
Cleveland, Ohio.....	26	9,762	91,927	Pittsburgh, Pa.....	35	3,884	67,673
Columbus, Ohio.....	6	250	2,333	Portland, Oreg.....	12	2,897	21,008
Denver, Colo.....	9	1,669	17,484	Providence, R. I.....	8	4,001	57,623
Des Moines, Iowa.....	9	379	3,850	Reading, Pa.....	4	439	8,008
Detroit, Mich.....	51	115,231	2,292,117	Richmond, Va.....	8	1,570	13,643
Duluth, Minn.....	2	2,001	6,006	Rochester, N. Y.....	12	2,161	11,669
Easton, Pa.....	1	66	198	Rockford, Ill.....	6	1,286	5,314
East St. Louis, Ill.....	20	6,344	50,670	Saginaw, Mich.....	4	2,006	9,900
Elizabeth, N. J.....	10	982	24,033	St. Louis, Mo.....	36	4,866	63,461
Erie, Pa.....	6	1,286	28,661	St. Paul, Minn.....	4	2,820	10,117
Evansville, Ind.....	3	533	5,145	San Francisco (bay area).....	58	26,178	348,918
Fall River, Mass.....	11	3,392	40,975	Scranton, Pa.....	6	544	4,585
Flint, Mich.....	14	3,323	21,038	Seattle, Wash.....	25	4,253	38,321
Haverhill, Mass.....	4	660	3,189	Shamokin, Pa.....	11	1,330	21,508
Houston, Texas.....	17	513	9,880	South Bend, Ind.....	6	5,364	59,587
Indianapolis, Ind.....	22	2,275	28,275	Springfield, Ill.....	6	387	5,004
Jersey City, N. J.....	24	2,401	20,436	Springfield, Mass.....	13	1,586	6,137
Kansas City, Mo.....	13	930	24,833	Terre Haute, Ind.....	4	286	7,500
Los Angeles, Calif.....	71	11,765	145,023	Toledo, Ohio.....	10	6,075	56,237
Louisville, Ky.....	6	694	3,766	Trenton, N. J.....	8	859	9,565
Lowell, Mass.....	6	733	3,004	Washington, D. C.....	23	5,878	64,989
Lynn, Mass.....	4	328	1,711	Waterbury, Conn.....	3	564	8,233
Memphis, Tenn.....	5	457	4,858	Wausau, Wis.....	2	139	2,535
Milwaukee, Wis.....	18	16,788	97,364	Wilkes-Barre, Pa.....	11	2,482	37,286
Minneapolis, Minn.....	20	10,454	63,491	Woonsocket, R. I.....	4	2,456	50,192
Newark, N. J.....	28	5,456	60,477	Worcester, Mass.....	3	2,514	54,760
New Bedford, Mass.....	7	1,546	14,066	York, Pa.....	9	2,019	32,562

Number of Workers Involved

Approximately one-fourth of the strikes in 1939 involved fewer than 20 workers each. More than half (56 percent) of the strikes involved from 20 to 250 workers each, and the remaining 19 percent involved 250 workers or more, the largest dispute (that of bituminous-coal miners) involving about 330,000. The average number of workers involved in the 2,613 strikes was 448. Excluding the bituminous-coal stoppage, the average was only 322 workers.

In table 6 the size of the strikes in each of the various industry groups is indicated. Only 8 strikes in 1939 involved as many as 10,000 workers each. These were—

The Plymouth strike in Detroit, Mich., in February.

The bituminous-coal stoppage in April.

The Harlan County (Ky.) coal miners' strike—which continued after termination of the general stoppage—in May.

The Briggs Manufacturing Co. strike at Detroit in May.

The WPA stoppages in July.

The Philadelphia building-trades strike in August.

The California cotton pickers' strike in October.

The Chrysler dispute at Detroit in October.

TABLE 6.—Strikes Beginning in 1939, by Number of Workers Involved and Industry

Industry group	Total	Average number of workers per strike	Number of strikes in which the number of workers involved was—							
			6 and under 20	20 and under 100	100 and under 250	250 and under 500	500 and under 1,000	1,000 and under 5,000	5,000 and under 10,000	10,000 and over
All industries:										
Number.....	2,613	448	648	1,054	427	214	140	107	15	8
Percent.....	100.0		24.8	40.3	16.3	8.2	5.4	4.1	0.6	0.3
<i>Manufacturing</i>										
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery.....	57	254	6	19	15	11	5	1		
Machinery, not including transportation equipment.....	85	294	6	33	27	7	8	3	1	
Transportation equipment.....	56	2,386	3	11	6	8	10	13	2	3
Nonferrous metals and products.....	32	193	8	11	5	5	1	2		
Lumber and allied products.....	170	183	26	73	39	20	8	4		
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	53	214	4	27	12	2	5	3		
Textiles and their products.....	539	168	139	258	66	38	21	15	2	
Leather and its manufactures.....	46	206	8	13	18	1	4	2		
Food and kindred products.....	148	200	42	52	24	15	10	5		
Tobacco manufactures.....	4	1,199		2			1	1		
Paper and printing.....	58	88	23	23	7	3	2			
Chemicals and allied products.....	39	352	9	15	11	1	1	1	1	
Rubber products.....	19	510	1	6	4	4	1	3		
Miscellaneous manufacturing.....	83	112	26	30	18	5	3	1		
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>										
Extraction of minerals.....	64	5,991	4	11	10	9	17	10	1	2
Transportation and communication.....	252	343	56	109	41	21	9	10	6	
Trade.....	283	93	123	112	27	9	7	5		
Domestic and personal service.....	161	131	65	65	18	7	2	3	1	
Professional service.....	34	98	8	14	9	2	1			
Building and construction.....	320	219	75	143	47	28	15	11		1
Agriculture and fishing.....	39	942	2	4	11	8	6	7		1
WPA, relief, and resettlement projects.....	33	4,392	2	6	9	6	2	6	1	1
Other nonmanufacturing industries.....	38	114	12	17	3	4	1	1		

Number of Establishments Involved

About three-fourths of the strikes in 1939, including 23 percent of the total workers involved and accounting for 22 percent of the total idleness due to strikes, were confined to single establishments. The term "establishment" as used here does not refer necessarily to a company or firm but refers rather to a place of work, such as a manufacturing plant, a mine, a building project, ship, or a dock. A strike against one company may, therefore, extend to several establishments.

A classification of the strikes ending in 1939, according to number of establishments involved, appears in table 7. Only 9 percent of the strikes extended to as many as 11 or more establishments but these strikes accounted for 55 percent of the total idleness and included 61 percent of the total workers involved.

TABLE 7.—*Strikes Ending in 1939, by Number of Establishments Involved*

Number of establishments involved	Strikes		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	2,639	100.0	1,177,883	100.0	18,520,503	100.0
1 establishment.....	1,954	74.1	268,385	22.8	4,018,404	21.7
2 to 5 establishments.....	338	12.8	89,313	7.6	1,701,724	9.2
6 to 10 establishments.....	106	4.0	106,395	9.0	2,594,116	14.0
11 establishments and over.....	239	9.1	713,340	60.6	10,200,499	55.1
Not reported.....	2	(¹)	450	(¹)	5,850	(¹)

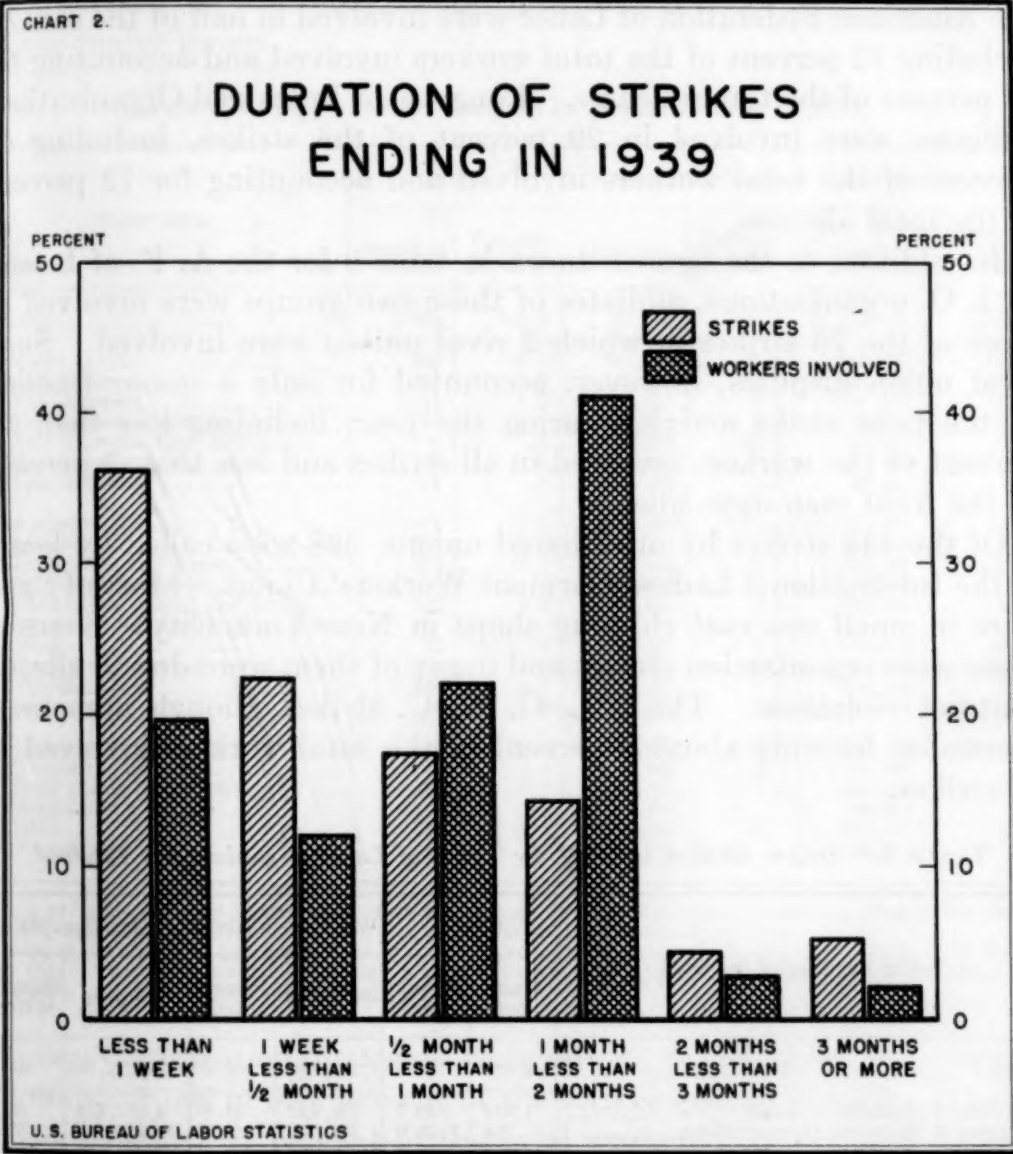
¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Duration of Strikes

The average duration of the 2,639 strikes ending in 1939 was about 23 calendar days. About 20 percent of the total workers involved were idle less than a week, 34 percent were idle from a week up to a month, and 46 percent were idle for a month or more. About 36 percent of the strikes lasted less than a week and, because of their short duration, accounted for very little (3 percent) of the total idleness. On the other hand, about 5 percent of the strikes continued for 3 months or more and accounted for nearly 14 percent of the total idleness. Most of the idleness (nearly 61 percent) resulted from the strikes (14 percent) which lasted from 1 to 2 months, since this group included the big coal stoppage.

TABLE 8.—Duration of Strikes Ending in 1939

Duration of strikes	Strikes		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	2,639	100.0	1,177,883	100.0	18,520,503	100.0
Less than 1 week.....	952	36.1	231,940	19.7	535,451	2.9
1 week and less than 1/2 month.....	593	22.5	142,725	12.1	965,381	5.2
1/2 and less than 1 month.....	460	17.4	259,948	22.1	2,177,233	11.8
1 and less than 2 months.....	380	14.4	485,671	41.2	11,243,565	60.6
2 and less than 3 months.....	116	4.4	33,019	2.8	1,085,796	5.9
3 months or more.....	138	5.2	24,580	2.1	2,513,077	13.6



Sex of Workers

Of the 1,177,883 workers involved in the strikes ending in 1939, about 90 percent were men and 10 percent were women. The large proportion of men is accounted for to a large extent by strikes in the coal-mining and automobile-manufacturing industries, some of which

were among the largest strikes of the year. Men only were involved in 55 percent of the 2,639 strikes, women only were involved in nearly 3 percent, and both men and women were involved in about 42 percent.

Labor Organizations Involved

Strikes called by unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor were more numerous in 1939 than those called by affiliates of the Congress of Industrial Organizations. Strikes of the latter organization, however, were much larger on the average and accounted for a large proportion of the total man-days idle. Unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor were involved in half of the strikes, including 32 percent of the total workers involved and accounting for 22 percent of the total idleness. Congress of Industrial Organizations affiliates were involved in 29 percent of the strikes, including 60 percent of the total workers involved and accounting for 72 percent of the total idleness.

In addition to the figures shown in table 9 for the A. F. of L. and C. I. O. organizations, affiliates of these two groups were involved in most of the 75 strikes in which 2 rival unions were involved. Such rival union disputes, however, accounted for only a minor fraction of the total strike activity during the year, including less than 2½ percent of the workers involved in all strikes and less than 3 percent of the total man-days idle.

Of the 434 strikes by unaffiliated unions, 398 were called by locals of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union. Most of these were in small contract clothing shops in New York City. Some of these were organization strikes and many of them were due to alleged contract violations. The I. L. G. W. U. strikes, though numerous, accounted for only about 3 percent of the total workers involved in all strikes.

TABLE 9.—*Strikes Ending in 1939, by Types of Labor Organizations Involved*

Labor organization involved	Strikes		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	2,639	100.0	1,177,883	100.0	18,520,503	100.0
American Federation of Labor.....	1,312	49.7	371,822	31.6	4,057,473	21.9
Congress of Industrial Organizations.....	764	29.0	704,031	59.7	13,265,150	71.7
Unaffiliated unions ¹	434	16.4	60,018	5.1	607,160	3.3
2 rival unions.....	75	2.8	28,571	2.4	525,755	2.8
Company unions ²	4	.2	1,909	.2	19,332	.1
No organization.....	50	1.9	11,532	1.0	45,643	.2

¹ Not affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, the Congress of Industrial Organizations, or the railroad brotherhoods but covering workers of more than 1 employer.

² Organizations confined to 1 company.

Causes of Strikes

Any statistical presentation of the causes of strikes is likely to appear more plausible than the actual situations warrant. The various parties concerned in the disputes frequently assign different reasons. Again, a strike may be called for one reason but during the progress of the strike the situation or leadership may change sufficiently to bring about a shift in demands or statement of grievances. Very few strikes are due to only one or two causes; in most cases the issues are many and complex. The following classification of causes of strikes is necessarily based upon some arbitrary determinations, although the most careful judgment has been used to ferret out the major issues.

TABLE 10.—Major Issues Involved in Strikes Ending in 1939

Major issue	Strikes		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
All issues.....	2,639	100.0	1,177,883	100.0	18,520,503	100.0
Wages and hours.....	699	26.5	351,703	29.9	3,311,779	17.9
Wage increase.....	441	16.7	133,758	11.3	1,502,523	8.2
Wage decrease.....	131	5.0	36,007	3.1	874,590	4.7
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	97	3.7	43,113	3.7	462,526	2.5
Wage decrease, hour increase.....	8	.3	127,064	10.8	414,563	2.2
Hour increase.....	8	.3	1,829	.2	20,603	.1
Hour decrease.....	14	.5	9,932	.8	36,974	.2
Union organization.....	1,411	53.5	641,298	54.4	13,841,951	74.7
Recognition.....	360	13.7	29,751	2.5	902,481	4.9
Recognition and wages.....	272	10.3	68,468	5.8	1,289,554	7.0
Recognition and hours.....	11	.4	1,280	.1	28,720	.2
Recognition, wages, and hours.....	242	9.2	32,535	2.8	651,953	3.5
Strengthening bargaining position.....	25	.9	62,667	5.3	1,849,653	10.0
Closed or union shop.....	324	12.3	423,674	35.9	8,645,621	46.6
Discrimination.....	127	4.8	16,288	1.4	434,348	2.3
Other.....	50	1.9	6,635	.6	39,621	.2
Miscellaneous.....	529	20.0	184,882	15.7	1,366,773	7.4
Sympathy.....	48	1.8	12,065	1.0	59,867	.3
Rival unions or factions.....	81	3.1	40,868	3.5	564,825	3.0
Jurisdiction ¹	75	2.8	8,671	.7	68,809	.4
Other.....	276	10.4	120,239	10.2	652,458	3.6
Not reported ²	49	1.9	3,039	.3	20,814	.1

¹ It is probable that the figures here given do not include all jurisdictional strikes. Owing to the local nature of these disputes, it is difficult for the Bureau to find out about all of them.

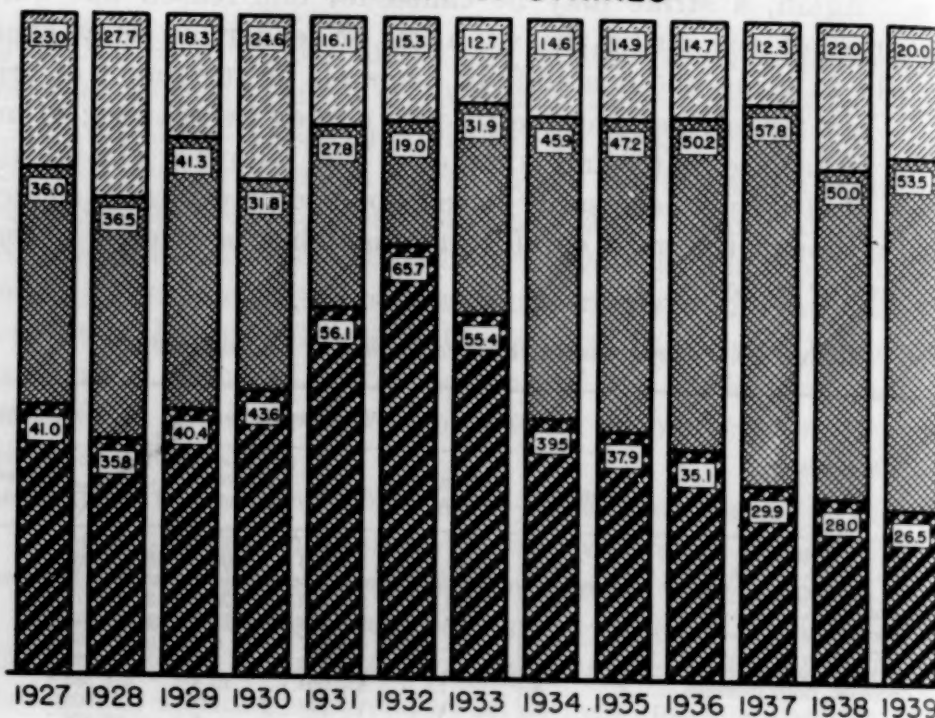
² Most of the strikes in this group were against women's clothing manufacturers—many of them in New York City. The union involved regarded them as strikes for the enforcement of the union agreements but the specific issue involved in each case was not reported.

Union-organization matters—recognition, closed shop, etc.—were the major issues in 53½ percent of the strikes ending in 1939. These strikes included 54 percent of the total workers involved and caused 75 percent of the total idleness resulting from all strikes. The bituminous-coal stoppage—in the “closed or union shop” classification—accounted for a large share of this idleness. Wages and hours were the major issues in 26½ percent of the strikes, including 30 percent of

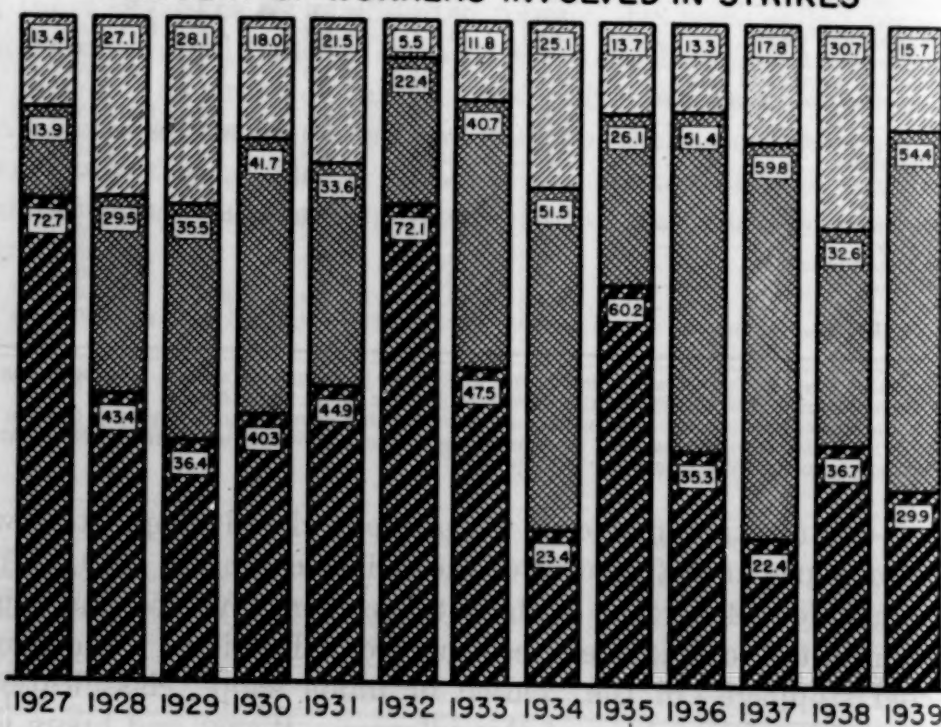
CHART 3.

MAJOR ISSUES INVOLVED IN STRIKES 1927-1939

PERCENT OF STRIKES



PERCENT OF WORKERS INVOLVED IN STRIKES



U. S. BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

MAJOR ISSUES:
 MISCELLANEOUS
 UNION ORGANIZATION
 WAGES AND HOURS

the workers involved and causing 18 percent of the total idleness. About four-fifths of the wage-and-hour strikes were for wage increases and one-fifth were defensive strikes, that is, protests against decreased wages or increased hours.

In 20 percent of the strikes, including 16 percent of the total workers and accounting for 7 percent of the total idleness, the major issues were miscellaneous matters other than wage-and-hour or union-organization issues. This group includes sympathy, jurisdictional, rival union, and factional strikes as well as disputes over such matters as seniority, vacations, division of work, job classifications, and other grievances concerning conditions of work.

Results of Strikes

The results of most strikes are fairly well known when the disputes are terminated. In some cases, however, subsequent developments may reveal that the apparent results immediately at the close of the strikes do not indicate the final effects. The results recorded statistically must of necessity be the apparent results at the close of the strikes, since it is impossible to keep in touch with later developments or to determine, in many cases, what bearing the strikes have on what happens later.

Of the 2,639 strikes ending in 1939, about 40 percent resulted in substantial gains to the workers, that is, the strikers obtained substantially everything that was demanded. These strikes included 42 percent of the total workers involved and accounted for 48 percent of the total man-days idle. About 32 percent of the strikes, including 34 percent of the workers involved and accounting for 37 percent of the total idleness, resulted in partial gains or compromises. Approximately 19 percent of the strikes, including 18 percent of the workers involved and accounting for 10½ percent of the total idleness, resulted in little or no gains for the workers.

TABLE 11.—Results of Strikes Ending in 1939

Result	Strikes		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	2,639	100.0	1,177,883	100.0	18,520,503	100.0
Substantial gains to workers.....	1,048	39.7	493,149	41.8	8,874,685	48.0
Partial gains or compromises.....	852	32.3	397,776	33.8	6,896,797	37.2
Little or no gains to workers.....	494	18.7	209,478	17.8	1,951,930	10.5
Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements.....	156	5.9	49,539	4.2	633,634	3.4
Indeterminate.....	40	1.5	24,805	2.1	143,526	.8
Not reported ¹	49	1.9	3,136	.3	19,931	.1

¹ Most of the strikes in this group were against small shops in the women's clothing industry. The union involved regarded many of them as being satisfactorily settled yet the exact terms of settlement were not reported.

About 46 percent of the wage-and-hour strikes were substantially won by the workers and only 10 percent were lost (see table 12). Of the union-organization strikes, 44 percent were won but 25 percent brought the workers little or no gains. A larger proportion (43 percent) of the wage-and-hour disputes were compromised than were the union-organization disputes (31 percent). In terms of number of strikes, the wage-and-hour strikes were, on the whole, slightly more successful than the strikes over union-organization issues. In terms of number of workers involved, however, the reverse is true. Of the workers involved in the wage-and-hour disputes, only 19 percent won, 41 percent obtained compromise settlements, and 40 percent gained little or nothing. In the union-organization strikes, 63 percent of the workers won substantially what was demanded, 31 percent obtained compromise settlements, and 6 percent gained little or nothing. The above figures are influenced greatly, of course, by the successful bituminous-coal stoppage in the union-organization group and the unsuccessful WPA stoppages in the wage-and-hour group.

TABLE 12.—Results of Strikes Ending in 1939, in Relation to Major Issues Involved

Major issue	Total		Strikes resulting in—					
	Number	Per cent	Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements	Indeterminate	Not reported
	Strikes		Percent of strikes					
All issues.....	2,639	100.0	39.7	32.3	18.7	5.9	1.5	1.9
Wages and hours.....	699	100.0	46.2	43.2	10.3			.3
Wage increase.....	441	100.0	41.7	48.3	9.8			.2
Wage decrease.....	131	100.0	65.6	20.6	13.0			.8
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	97	100.0	43.3	50.5	6.2			
Wage decrease, hour increase.....	8	100.0	25.0	25.0	50.0			
Hour increase.....	8	100.0	50.0	50.0				
Hour decrease.....	14	100.0	35.7	50.0	14.3			
Union organization.....	1,411	100.0	43.6	30.8	25.1		.4	.1
Recognition.....	360	100.0	45.3	16.1	37.8		.8	
Recognition and wages.....	272	100.0	41.5	39.0	19.1			.4
Recognition and hours.....	11	100.0	45.5	9.0	45.5			
Recognition, wages, and hours.....	242	100.0	50.8	30.6	18.2			.4
Strengthening bargaining position.....	25	100.0	48.0	28.0	24.0			
Closed or union shop.....	324	100.0	35.5	43.2	21.3			
Discrimination.....	127	100.0	48.0	26.8	24.4		.8	
Other.....	50	100.0	46.0	30.0	22.0		2.0	
Miscellaneous.....	529	100.0	20.8	21.7	12.9	29.5	6.6	8.5
Sympathy.....	48	100.0	18.7	18.7	20.8		41.8	
Rivals unions or factions.....	81	100.0				100.0		
Jurisdiction.....	75	100.0				100.0		
Other.....	276	100.0	36.6	38.4	19.2		5.4	.4
Not reported.....	49	100.0			10.2			89.8

TABLE 12.—Results of Strikes Ending in 1939, in Relation to Major Issues Involved—Continued

Major issue	Total		Strikes resulting in—					
	Number	Per- cent	Sub- stan- tial gains to work- ers	Partial gains or com- pro- mises	Little or no gains to work- ers	Juris- diction, rival union, or faction settle- ments	Inde- termi- nate	Not re- port- ed
	Workers		Percent of workers involved					
All issues.....	1, 177, 883	100. 0	41. 8	33. 8	17. 8	4. 2	2. 1	0. 3
Wages and hours.....	351, 703	100. 0	18. 8	40. 7	40. 5			(1)
Wage increase.....	133, 758	100. 0	25. 9	67. 2	6. 9			(1)
Wage decrease.....	36, 007	100. 0	58. 7	30. 3	10. 8			. 2
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	43, 113	100. 0	14. 5	72. 4	13. 1			
Wage decrease, hour increase.....	127, 064	100. 0	1. 3	1. 6	97. 1			
Hour increase.....	1, 829	100. 0	36. 2	63. 8				
Hour decrease.....	9, 932	100. 0	17. 7	79. 6	2. 7			
Union organization.....	641, 298	100. 0	63. 3	30. 6	6. 0		. 1	(1)
Recognition.....	29, 751	100. 0	40. 3	31. 8	26. 4		1. 5	
Recognition and wages.....	68, 468	100. 0	43. 6	45. 9	10. 3			. 2
Recognition and hours.....	1, 280	100. 0	73. 5	19. 5	7. 0			
Recognition, wages, and hours.....	32, 535	100. 0	27. 5	65. 4	7. 1			(1)
Strengthening bargaining posi- tion.....	62, 667	100. 0	5. 9	84. 3	9. 8			
Closed or union shop.....	423, 674	100. 0	81. 0	16. 5	2. 5			
Discrimination.....	16, 288	100. 0	31. 9	49. 6	18. 4		. 1	
Other.....	6, 635	100. 0	46. 1	39. 4	14. 1		. 4	
Miscellaneous.....	184, 882	100. 0	11. 1	31. 6	15. 7	26. 8	13. 2	1. 6
Sympathy.....	12, 065	100. 0	3. 2	73. 5	5. 6		17. 7	
Rival unions or factions.....	40, 868	100. 0				100. 0		
Jurisdiction.....	8, 671	100. 0				100. 0		
Other.....	120, 239	100. 0	16. 7	41. 4	23. 4		18. 5	(1)
Not reported.....	3, 039	100. 0			5. 7			94

¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

In table 13 the 2,639 strikes ending in 1939 are classified according to results and duration. The successful strikes, generally speaking, tended to be of rather short duration. As strikes continued on for a month or more the chances of a wholly successful settlement seem to have diminished. Of the strikes lasting less than 1 week, nearly half were won by the workers, 25 percent were compromised, and 15 percent resulted in little or no gains. The proportion of successful strikes diminished while the proportions of compromised and lost strikes increased in strikes of longer duration. Of those lasting 3 months or more, only 22 percent were substantially won, 33 percent were compromised, and 40 percent resulted in little or no gains.

TABLE 13.—Results of Strikes Ending in 1939 in Relation to Their Duration

Duration of strikes	Total	Number of strikes resulting in—				Total	Percent of strikes resulting in—			
		Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Other ¹		Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Other ¹
Total.....	2,639	1,048	852	494	245	100.0	39.7	32.3	18.7	9.3
Less than 1 week.....	952	465	237	140	110	100.0	48.8	24.9	14.7	11.6
1 week and less than ½ month.....	593	233	216	96	48	100.0	39.3	36.4	16.2	8.1
½ and less than 1 month.....	460	156	174	82	48	100.0	33.9	37.9	17.8	10.4
1 and less than 2 months.....	380	128	140	89	23	100.0	33.7	36.8	23.4	6.1
2 and less than 3 months.....	116	36	40	32	8	100.0	31.0	34.5	27.6	6.9
3 months or more.....	138	30	45	55	8	100.0	21.7	32.6	39.9	5.8

¹ Includes strikes for which sufficient information was not available, as well as those involving rival unions, jurisdiction, and other questions, the results of which cannot be evaluated in terms of their effect on the welfare of all workers concerned.

The data in table 14 indicate that a large proportion of the successful strikes were among the smaller disputes and that the percentage of successful strikes decreased as the number of workers involved increased. A large proportion of the smaller strikes were quite definitely won or lost, while more of the large disputes were compromised. Only about one-fourth of the strikes involving less than 100 workers were compromised, while about half of those involving 250 or more workers were settled on a compromise basis.

TABLE 14.—Results of Strikes Ending in 1939, in Relation to Number of Workers Involved

Number of workers involved	Total	Number of strikes resulting in—				Total	Percent of strikes resulting in—			
		Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Other ¹		Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Other ¹
Total.....	2,639	1,048	852	494	245	100.0	39.7	32.3	18.7	9.3
6 and under 20.....	659	295	126	190	48	100.0	44.8	19.1	28.8	7.3
20 and under 100.....	1,066	470	310	174	112	100.0	44.1	29.1	16.3	10.5
100 and under 250.....	415	140	164	65	46	100.0	33.7	39.5	15.7	11.1
250 and under 500.....	220	71	106	26	17	100.0	32.3	48.2	11.8	7.7
500 and under 1,000.....	147	40	78	19	10	100.0	27.2	53.1	12.9	6.8
1,000 and under 5,000.....	109	29	56	16	8	100.0	26.6	51.4	14.7	7.3
5,000 and under 10,000.....	15	2	8	3	2	100.0	13.3	53.4	20.0	13.3
10,000 workers and over.....	8	1	4	1	2	100.0	12.5	50.0	12.5	25.0

¹ Includes strikes for which sufficient information was not available, as well as those involving rival unions, jurisdiction, and other questions, the results of which cannot be evaluated in terms of their effect on the welfare of all workers concerned.

Methods of Negotiating Settlements

About 41 percent of the strikes ending in 1939 were settled by direct negotiations between employers and union officials. These strikes, on the average, were the smaller disputes—including only 20½ per-

cent of the total workers involved and accounting for about 11 percent of the total man-days idle as a result of all strikes. Government officials or boards assisted in negotiating settlements for 38 percent of the strikes. These strikes included 62 percent of the total workers involved and caused 78 percent of the total idleness resulting from all strikes. About 2 percent of the strikes were settled with the assistance of private conciliators or arbitrators.

Of the 1,005 strikes settled with the assistance of government officials or boards, 970 were settled through conciliation methods, and in 35 strikes the issues in dispute were arbitrated. Of the 48 strikes in which private conciliators or arbitrators assisted, conciliation methods were used to settle 14, and in 34 some or all of the issues went to arbitration.

About 17 percent of the strikes, including 16 percent of the workers involved and accounting for 9 percent of the total man-days idle, were terminated without formal settlements. In most of these cases the strikers returned to work on the employers' terms without settlement of the disputed issues, or they lost their jobs entirely when employers replaced them with new workers, moved to other localities, or went out of business.

TABLE 15.—Methods of Negotiating Settlements of Strikes Ending in 1939

Negotiations toward settlements carried on by—	Strikes		Workers involved		Man-days idle	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	2, 639	100. 0	1, 177, 883	100. 0	18, 520, 503	100. 0
Employers and workers directly.....	31	1. 2	8, 289	. 7	29, 067	. 2
Employers and representatives of organized workers directly.....	1, 093	41. 4	241, 609	20. 5	1, 996, 221	10. 8
Government officials or boards.....	1, 005	38. 1	724, 751	61. 6	14, 516, 966	78. 3
Private conciliators or arbitrators.....	48	1. 8	18, 891	1. 6	345, 582	1. 9
Terminated without formal settlement.....	460	17. 4	184, 182	15. 6	1, 627, 442	8. 8
Not reported.....	2	. 1	161	(¹)	5, 225	(¹)

¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Sit-Down Strikes

Sit-down strikes, first receiving attention in 1936, had almost disappeared in 1939. In 1936 there were 48 so-called sit-down strikes. In 1937 the number increased to 477, but by 1938 they decreased to 52. There were only 6 strikes during 1939 in which all or part of the strikers remained at their workplaces for one or more days after ceasing work. The number of workers idle in connection with these 6 strikes was 3,416, although the number participating in the sit-down or stay-in feature is not known. Five of the 6 strikes, involving 3,391 workers, occurred in February 1939 and 1 strike of 25 workers in March.

One of these six strikes occurred in a refrigerator-manufacturing plant, two were in plants manufacturing nonferrous-metal products, there was one in a garment factory, one in a flour and grain mill, and one in mining.

Two of these strikes were over wage-and-hour issues, two were due to disputes over union-organization matters, one was to collect back wages due, and one was in protest against a company system of staggering work. Two of them were successful from the workers' viewpoint, two were compromised, and two brought the workers little or no gains.

Wartime Emergency Controls

THE I. L. O. IN WARTIME

By JOHN S. GAMBS, *Assistant United States Labor Commissioner, Geneva*

WARFARE in Europe has set new tasks for the International Labor Organization and redirected its energies. Although the Organization has had to give up some of its officials and to accept drastic budgetary reductions, an international staff of 300 men and women remains to carry on an ambitious program of work. All of the large member States, and many small ones, have explicitly affirmed their desire that the functions of the Organization be continued in the present crisis.

Approximately 1 year before hostilities began, the I. L. O. was already making active preparations for the eventuality of warfare. A tripartite emergency subcommittee of its Governing Body was soon appointed to draft plans and to act on behalf of the entire Governing Body. The pre-war work of the emergency committee—for so it was named—has already been reported in the *Monthly Labor Review*.¹ Since the war, the emergency committee has met twice, but its meetings last autumn were in fact attended by most of the regular members of the Governing Body, not to mention various other representatives of governments, employers' organizations, and trade-unions, who are entitled to be present. They selected as their chairman, and therefore as chairman of the Governing Body, Carter Goodrich, United States Labor Commissioner in Geneva. In February, the new chairman presided over a full meeting of the Governing Body. Clarence McDavitt attended as the representative of American employers and Robert J. Watt as representative of American labor.

The great problem that has faced the emergency committee and the Governing Body has been to decide which I. L. O. activities should be temporarily abandoned and which pressed or substituted in the period of hostilities. It was decided that the Organization should hold its annual conference this year as usual, and that this meeting should take place in June. It was somewhat more difficult to decide on the program of the Conference, for this decision had to be considered in its relationship to the total plan for I. L. O. activities at the present time.

During the past 20 years the Organization has performed two major types of concrete work—concrete, as opposed to the influence it has

¹ See issue of August 1939 (pp. 327-328).

exerted as a moral force on the improvement of international relations through the elevation of labor standards. The two major, tangible tasks have been, first, the proposal and drafting of labor conventions, or treaties, for submission to governments with a view to ratification; second, the collection and distribution of information bearing on labor matters.

The emergency committee and the Governing Body have decided that the first of these two functions should be put aside temporarily, since the present international instability makes it unlikely that governments will now give much attention to adopting and ratifying new labor conventions. The second function, however, that of collecting and distributing information, is to be continued and, where possible, extended. It may be expected that, as the result of the second regional conference of American States,² held in November 1939, increased attention will be given to the gathering of materials useful to Latin America. In addition, new tasks appropriate to altered conditions are to be undertaken. The first of these will be a broad study of collaboration among public authorities, employers' organizations and workers' organizations; the second, a study of the labor problems involved in the transition to a peacetime economy at the end of the war; the third, a study of the relationship between prices and wages.

Current Studies

Of these three topics, the greatest public attention this year will be focused on the first, that of tripartite collaboration. The study prepared by the Office of the Organization will come up for consideration and discussion at the International Labor Conference. Delegates representing governments, employers, and workers will meet in June 1940, to contribute their experience and knowledge on this subject. The Office, using this fresh material, will revise its draft study and will then be prepared to publish a document of unique value. The subject takes on considerable importance at this time when the expansion of democracy is a subject of such pressing interest in so many countries, and when, particularly in mobilized nations, an extension of industrial democracy may be a means of partially compensating for wartime withdrawals of economic freedom and political democracy.³

The Governing Body has authorized the Office to undertake a study relating to post-war social and economic conditions, and to suggest means of relieving the serious maladjustments which now threaten to occur as an aftermath of hostilities. A few members of the Governing Body felt that this subject, like the one of tripartite collaboration, ought to be discussed at the International Labor Conference of 1940.⁴

² See *Monthly Labor Review*, January 1940 (pp. 59-61).

³ *Idem*, December 1939 (p. 1358).

⁴ For a summary of the discussion on this heading at the October meeting of the emergency committee, see the *Political Science Quarterly*, March 1940 (pp. 122-126).

The majority of the Body decided, however, that it would be premature to put this topic on the program of the next Conference, but that the Office should give this pressing question its most serious and immediate attention. The study will probably inquire into the extent to which normal, competitive economic activity after the war will absorb European manpower and provide an adequate standard of living. It will, no doubt, conclude that the normal economic processes cannot immediately supply an adequate standard of living for all, and will then suggest how measures relating to public works, vocational education and rehabilitation, relief, low-cost housing, and other measures may prevent widespread suffering during a period of transition.

Related to this problem of absorption of manpower is that of refugees and human migration. The Office was authorized to organize an international committee on migration for settlement and to call a meeting of this committee in June of this year. Its agenda will be:

1. The problem of the international financing of migration, including the basis upon which there might be organized an international body for the financing of settlement and the nature and sources of its capital.
2. The technical selection of immigrants.
3. The methods of investigation by which the possibilities of settlement could be determined, with a view to the establishment of definite schemes which could be put into operation by means of international technical and financial cooperation.

The last important study authorized by the Governing Body was an investigation of the relationship between wages and prices. In many countries the war has stimulated the demand for goods and the services of labor. In the past, a similar economic situation—whether in peacetime or wartime—has led to the vicious circle of increased wages and higher prices. In some European countries, rationing, price-control or maintenance of pre-war wage levels, are being used in an attempt to prevent this spiral movement; in others, as in England, ingenious schemes are being discussed with considerable vigor and interest. The I. L. O. study should shed new light on the obscure relations between wages and prices—a study which will attack a persistent and obstinate economic problem of international importance, for the vicious spiral of increased wages and costs has a long history and knows no geographic boundaries.

A few matters of administrative importance remain to be mentioned. Two States, Italy and the Soviet Union, both of which formerly held governmental seats on the Governing Body by virtue of their industrial importance, are no longer members, and their places have been taken by Belgium and the Netherlands. Other changes in the composition of the Governing Body—but for other reasons—are in prospect. The

3-year terms of those eight States which became members by virtue of election, will expire this year, as well as the terms of all representatives of workers and employers. At the June meeting of the International Labor Conference, these vacancies will be filled.



WARTIME CONTROL OF AGRICULTURE IN THE UNITED KINGDOM¹

THE entire agricultural industry of the United Kingdom was placed under the control of the British Minister of Agriculture for the duration of the war emergency, by the terms of special legislation and the defense regulations adopted in 1939. This was done to insure that agricultural land would be efficiently and exclusively used for the production of essential foodstuffs. From the standpoint of workers the Government's action is particularly significant, since the program of expanded agricultural operations should involve more employment for agricultural workers and an opportunity for nonagricultural workers to supplement their purchases with foodstuffs they may grow on small garden plots allotted to them.

Normally, only 35 percent of the total food requirements of the country are supplied from domestic sources and the remainder must be imported. In this war, as in the last, increased agricultural output is being encouraged by the Government in order that space on freighters may be reserved for the import of essential war supplies.

Organization of Agriculture

The Agricultural Development Act of 1939 provided for placing an additional 2,000,000 acres of land under cultivation by December 31, 1939. Of this total, 1,500,000 acres were to be plowed in England and Wales and 500,000 acres in Scotland and Northern Ireland. The Government provided a subsidy of £2 per acre for all approved grasslands put to farm use before the end of the year, but the date was later postponed to March 31, 1940.

Farmers were urged to sow as much winter wheat as possible and to make substantial increases in the acreage sown to oats, barley, flax, and potatoes in the spring. Emphasis was also placed on producing more livestock, particularly sheep. The Government established a reserve of farm tractors, fertilizer, and certain seeds, to be placed at the disposal of the farmers.

Protection against low prices for oats, barley, and fat sheep, through subsidy payments under certain conditions, was also provided under

¹ Data are from Local Government Chronical (London), January 13, 1940; Economist (London), issues of October 28, 1939, and February 17, 1940; and U. S. Department of Agriculture, Office of Foreign Agricultural Relations, Foreign Agriculture, issues of November and December 1939 and February 1940.

the 1939 law. Prices for the 1940 harvest will be fixed at a sufficiently high level to insure a reasonable return to farmers. They have a guaranteed market for cattle, sheep, and pigs for food under the rationing system, since the Minister of Food buys their product. Prices of feed for animals are also subject to control.

In regulating and controlling agriculture, the Minister of Agriculture is empowered to delegate his powers to other agencies acting under his authority. Therefore, subcommittees have been appointed to deal with special phases of the campaign. The county war agricultural executive committees, in the various agricultural counties of England and Wales, are also playing an important part and are surveying all farms to determine their capacity to increase food production.

The Minister of Agriculture may issue all the necessary regulations or directions as to cultivation, farm management, and land use. He may terminate any tenancy or dispossess an owner-occupier, if good farming practices are not being observed.

Labor Aspects

Wages of agricultural workers have risen markedly since the outbreak of war. Employment has also increased. Although it was too early in the season to determine the effects of the program on the employment of agricultural labor, the figures for both December 1939 and January 1940 showed a decrease of 1.5 percent, as compared with the same month of the previous year, in the total number of unemployed persons registered under the agricultural unemployment scheme.

Among the defense regulations adopted, one provides specifically for allotment gardens. A local authority, which has control of any land, has the right to adopt that land for use as allotment gardens, and to let it to a tenant or a society for the purpose of subletting it for such use. No existing law, trust, covenant, or restriction affecting such land may interfere with its use for gardens. Workers who undertake to cultivate gardens will have the advantage of securing better food at lower cost. This use of leisure time has the advantage also of promoting health and stimulating interest, in a period when ordinary means of recreation are much curtailed.

Employment and Labor Conditions

TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGES AND EMPLOYMENT IN THE STEEL INDUSTRY

ON April 8, 1940, the Temporary National Economic Committee¹ inaugurated a series of hearings on technological changes, including the development and use of machines and the effects on employment and production. A preliminary summary of the subject in its broader aspects was presented on April 8. On April 11 and 12, the committee directed its attention to the steel industry. Testimony was presented on the technological changes in this industry by representatives of both employers and workers.²

There was agreement that technological changes cause at least temporary displacements and dislocations. Differences of view were expressed regarding the seriousness of displacement and the appropriate methods of dealing with the problem.

An Employer's Point of View

Charles R. Hook, president of the American Rolling Mill Co., presented a general analysis of the effects of technological innovations on employment:

It is not my intention to attempt any theoretical analysis of the effects of technological innovations on employment. It seems to me, however, that most economists and businessmen are agreed that technological improvements tend to stimulate the demand for labor and do not of themselves bring about prolonged periods of unemployment.

I believe it has been thoroughly established that ever since the introduction of power machinery, there has been a continuous increase in the output per man-hour in industrialized countries. This increase in man-hour output, as we all know, has been accompanied by increased employment, shorter working hours, improved working conditions and an ever-advancing standard of living.

It is true that the introduction of a labor-saving device may cause some immediate displacement of individual workers. Likewise, workers in some trades may be displaced when new products, as was true of the automobile, appear upon

¹ For a summary of the organization, membership, and general objects of the Temporary National Economic Committee, see *Monthly Labor Review*, January 1939 (pp. 1-15): *Basic Problems of the National Economy*, by Edwin M. Martin. (Reprinted as Serial No. R. 865.)

² Steel workers were represented by Philip Murray, chairman of the steel workers organizing committee. The employers' point of view was presented by Charles R. Hook, president of the American Rolling Mill Co. This article is a summary of some of the outstanding portions of the testimony presented by these two men.

the market. Such temporary dislocations are inevitable in a progressive society and they need cause concern only when the displaced workers are unable to find other employment without prolonged delay.

It is my observation as a businessman that the time which must elapse before any displaced workers are reabsorbed into other lines of work depends upon general business conditions and the relative freedom from causes which restrict the free flow of capital. The elapsed time is brief when all factors are favorable, as during the postwar period of the early nineteen twenties when employment gained simultaneously with many technological advances.

The elapsed time may be longer when general conditions are unfavorable as they have been in recent years, but the experience of the last century seems to provide no evidence for concluding that technological improvements cause permanent unemployment or help to bring about prolonged depressions.

In the field of the iron and steel industry, comparisons of the years 1927 and 1937 were made as evidence that technological changes have not caused unemployment in the industry as a whole. This conclusion was based on the statement that total employment in the industry was greater in 1937 than in 1927. It was recognized, however, that the number of workers employed was affected by the fact that production was larger in 1937 than in 1927 and even more significantly by the fact that average hours per week were much lower. It was later pointed out that the cumulative effects of the new technology were greatest after 1936.

As for the effect of the substitution of continuous sheet mills for hand mills, it was stated that the employment required for the construction and equipment of these new mills should be taken into account. The continuous-sheet rolling mills put into operation by 1937 represent a total investment of about \$500,000,000. It was stated that the greatest number of men that could have been employed directly in the operation of the hand mills in 1926 was about 43,000, and many of these mills are still in use. There are additional jobs, however, in the operations back in the plant before the product reaches the hand mills, and also in the maintenance of the machinery. When the hand mills are supplanted, many of these workers, instead of being displaced, are transferred to similar work on the continuous mills. It was also stated that the continuous mill creates jobs which do not exist in the hand mill.

There was an emphasis on the advantages of the continuous-sheet mill process and it was stated that two important benefits have accrued to workers. In the first place, the work has been made lighter and working conditions have been improved. Work on the old-style hand mills was much more arduous and difficult than on the continuous mills, which have eliminated the more difficult and taxing manual labor. In the second place, workers have benefited from the broadening of markets brought about by the continuous sheet mills. This has been made possible by changes in the quality and properties of

sheets made by the new process. The product lends itself to new uses and applications, as for example, the steel automobile top and one-piece automobile fender.

In a discussion of the methods of dealing with the problem of technological displacement, it was stated that reemployment could normally be expected through the processes of reducing the costs of production, increasing the volume of production, and shortening hours of work. The plan of the American Rolling Mill Co. in 1929, when there was an extensive shift to the new type of sheet mills, was described in some detail. It was explained that every effort was made to reemploy as many of the displaced workers as possible and to aid them, upon request, in obtaining work with other companies. Men who were not placed were given half pay for as many months as their years of service but for not more than 6 months and with a minimum of \$50 per month.

It was stated that the extent of separation allowances in the industry as a whole is not known. No industry-wide effort has been made to deal with the problem and no provision has been made for workers displaced when companies are forced to go out of business because of the transition to new types of mills.

The Point of View of Labor

The chairman of the Steel Workers Organizing Committee, Philip Murray, in his testimony presented to the Temporary National Economic Committee, referred to the chronic ills of the Nation's economy and stated that the most vital of these ills is unemployment. It is stated that the upswing in business and industrial activity, which reached its peak in the last quarter of 1939, showed clearly that the Nation's industry is not expanding enough to absorb workers displaced by technology. The Nation's most crucial problem is this failure of the economic system to provide opportunities for work.

It was stated emphatically that the Steel Workers Organizing Committee does not oppose technological advances but, on the contrary, conducts a continuous educational campaign among its members in favor of technological improvements. The purpose, it was stated, is to obtain the participation of labor and consumers in the economic benefits of such changes and to eliminate the present devastating social effects on workers, their families, and entire communities.

EXTENT OF TECHNOLOGICAL CHANGES IN THE STEEL INDUSTRY

The outstanding technological change of the thirties in the steel industry was the continuous automatic steel strip mill. The first of these mills, commonly called hot strip mills, was operated in 1924, and the twenty-seventh mill was put into operation in 1938. Contrary

to a widely held view, a rise in wage rates was not the cause of these changes. All of the automatic strip mills were constructed, under construction, or authorized to be constructed before the rise in steel wages in 1936 and 1937.

The combined capacity of the 27 automatic strip mills installed between 1924 and 1938 was about 15,000,000 tons of flat rolled-steel products. In 1929, the capacity of the old-style mills was 15,600,000 tons. Numerous other technological improvements have occurred, as in the open-hearth furnaces, in the speed of cold wire drawing machines (one company increasing the speed from 115 revolutions per minute to 150), and in the introduction of scarfers with acetylene torches for burning bad seams out of billets.

TECHNOLOGICAL DISPLACEMENT OF WORKERS

It was stated that the extent to which the strip mills eliminate workers is incredible. Human labor is practically eliminated. Electric power is substituted. Steel is rolled on the hot strip mills at speeds approximating a half-mile a minute. It has been estimated that in direct operations "with 126 men in the slab yard, on the furnace, and overseeing the mill, you can turn out 2,500 tons a day, whereas it would take 96 sheet mills of the conventional type with a combined crew of 4,512 men to produce an equivalent tonnage." An estimate of the aggregate displacement since strip mills were first put into operation places the number at 38,470 workers, and tentative estimates of displacement to be expected in integrated companies and in small independent companies still operating the older type of plants indicates that an even larger number will be displaced in the future. Other technological changes have added to the displacement of workers. It is estimated, for example, that the introduction of scarfers eliminated at least 2,500 workers in the past decade.

The effects of the new steel technology on employment and pay rolls were especially marked after 1936. In August 1936, the rate and quantity of ingot production were approximately the same as in September 1939 and yet, according to the testimony of the workers' representative, in September 1939 as compared with August 1936, there were 30,000 fewer workers; the number of man-hours per ton of steel ingots was 21 percent less; the labor cost per ton of steel was about the same in spite of a rise of more than one-fourth in hourly wage rates; and the price of finished steel was about 9 percent higher.

The number of man-hours of employment in the entire industry fell much more sharply than the number of wage earners. The number of man-hours was 20.4 percent lower in September 1939 than in August 1936, although the number of wage earners was only 6.5 percent lower. The comparatively small reduction in number of workers was partly a result of a reduction in the maximum working

week in 1937 from 48 to 40 hours. The average hours actually worked, however, were much lower than 40 per week, for a large proportion of the steel workers who retained employment were not employed full time.

In a discussion of the effects of the new steel technology on jobs outside of the steel industry, some instances were cited in support of the view that new jobs are not being created to compensate for jobs eliminated directly in the steel industry. Tinplate made by the new process is used for beer cans, but this means fewer glass containers and therefore fewer glass workers. Sheet steel is being used for plumbing fixtures, but this means displacement of workers in foundries that produce cast-iron enameled plumbing fixtures.

EFFECTS OF LABOR DISPLACEMENT ON INDIVIDUALS AND COMMUNITIES

The effects of displacement on individuals were described in graphic terms:

These workers have not been disconnected from the industry, one by one. They have been cast out, a thousand at a time. Fifteen hundred. And in one case three thousand workers were told to go home, and never to come back as their mill would not work again. Aside from the inhuman effect this wholesale abandoning of mills has on the individual worker, look at what happens to entire communities. Property becomes next to worthless, business drops to a fraction of previous levels, families are kept in existence by WPA and relief, the social fabric of the town is torn in shreds, and the only means of making a livelihood is taken away from workers, many of whom have never known any other way of earning a living. All this happens because technology has found a new method of production, in this case the automatic strip mill. The financial cost of a strip mill is fifteen, twenty, or forty million dollars. But the social cost of this automatic mill is far greater in terms of human misery, personal tragedy, and wrecked mankind. Look at the workers immediately displaced.

A large percentage of these technologically displaced workers are skilled men. They have spent years acquiring their skills, and now private industry has no use for them. These men are no longer young in years, though they are not too old to work. But they are unemployed, discarded by the steel industry because profits cannot be made from their skills any more. These men are capable of many more years of good work, but private industry is no longer interested in them because most of them have reached the ripe old age of forty years.

Entire communities have been affected by the closing down of the old type of mills. In one steel town of 50,000 people, 4,500 hand-mill workers were permanently displaced during the past 3 years. A few years earlier, 1,200 Bessemer steel workers were displaced in the same town. In this community, 64 percent of the population, or about 7,000 families, have been receiving some form of State or Federal assistance or have been trying to get such aid. Expenditures by the State and Federal Governments in this town have approximated \$3,250,000 a year.

PROPOSED REMEDIAL MEASURES

The testimony of the steel workers' representative emphasized the view that the impact of technology during the thirties retarded a sound recovery and a sustained prosperity. The problem of technology was described as twofold:

First, ways and means must be found to provide for the men and women, their families and their communities, who are the victims of technological change. Industry must assume social responsibility for the human beings who are discarded by new industrial techniques that industry owns, controls, and installs.

Secondly, ways and means must be found to distribute the benefits of technology to everyone in the country, to arrest the trend toward a declining working force, and to provide employment—the means of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness—to the large mass of men and women, one-third of whom are young men and women, who are today idle through no fault of their own, who are idle because of the failure of private industry to provide them with jobs.

In a discussion of practical ways in which industry can assume social responsibility for technological improvements, it was held that in many instances this could be achieved through the normal processes of collective bargaining along the following lines:

1. The workers to be displaced by technological improvements should be reabsorbed in the regular labor turn-over of the companies installing them.
2. The workers to be displaced should be notified at least 6 months in advance. From then until they are finally displaced, they should be given opportunities to learn how to do other jobs where openings develop periodically. Where necessary, expert vocational guidance and training should be provided for those workers who cannot easily adjust themselves to other jobs.
3. Those workers for whom there are no openings when they are finally displaced, should be employed in some capacity until regular jobs open up for them. The wages paid these workers until they are placed on regular jobs should be charged to the original cost of the technological improvement.
4. Displaced workers who suffer a reduction of 10 or more percent in their average daily earnings as a result of being absorbed on lower paying jobs than their original ones, should be paid a job compensation of 3 percent of their earnings while in the service of the company. The job-compensation payments should be charged to the cost of the technological improvement.
5. The displaced workers who, for various reasons, cannot be reabsorbed in other jobs should be paid a dismissal wage of 10 percent of their earnings for a 10-year period, but not less than \$500 to those workers with less than 10 years of service. The dismissal wages should be charged to the cost of the technological improvement.

These suggestions were not offered as the final solutions for all of the problems incident to technological changes. It was held that in the absence of universal collective bargaining, congressional regulation of the introduction of large technological changes is necessary. The general purpose of such regulations should be to make sure that technological improvements are installed "at such times and under such conditions as not to displace workers, bankrupt communities,

close up complete mills, and otherwise disrupt the social fabric of industrial districts." It was suggested that the regulations might take the following form:

1. It should be compulsory for industry to pay adequate dismissal wages to all workers who are displaced as the result of technological changes.
2. The Federal Government should conduct a large-scale vocational training program for displaced workers who are paid dismissal wages, so that they will be better adapted for other jobs in industry that they might be able to secure, when their dismissal wages are exhausted. It is essential that labor should participate in the administration of such a vocational training program.
3. In addition to compulsory dismissal wages, other measures designed to have industry immediately reabsorb workers displaced by technological changes should be adopted.

It was held that the major part of the problem of technological unemployment from the national point of view is the distribution of the benefits of technology to everyone in the country. Even though provision is made to absorb displaced workers in the normal labor turn-over, the unemployed workers and young workers reaching an employable age, who would be absorbed in the labor turn-over if there were no displaced workers, remain unemployed unless additional opportunities for employment are provided. In connection with this major problem, it was suggested that congressional measures might be enacted, designed to—

1. Pass on to consumers generally the economic benefits of technological improvements which are not being passed on in large enough amounts at the present time, or are being passed on too late to prevent our economic machinery from becoming jammed.

2. The maximum workweek in basic mass-producing industries which are highly developed from a technological point of view should be reduced. The performance of the steel industry in the past 10 years, as I have shown, illustrates the vital necessity for a further reduction in the maximum workweek. At the same time, the population of the country as a whole has increased approximately 8 percent. Thus, despite a decrease of more than one-third in the average workweek, the steel industry, the wealthiest in the Nation, has failed to absorb any of the net increase in employables resulting from our rising population. With the present rate of technological change in the steel industry, in the course of a short period of time thousands fewer workers will be employed than at present, unless the maximum workweek is further reduced to the level of approximately 30 hours a week at prevailing earnings or more.



EXPERIENCE OF A GROUP OF PLANTS IN STABILIZING EMPLOYMENT

EVIDENCE that many companies have been making serious efforts to regularize employment is afforded by a recent study made by the National Association of Manufacturers, covering 183 of its members.¹ The companies included in the survey were selected entirely at ran-

¹ National Association of Manufacturers. *Employment Regularization*. New York, 1940.

dom and because of their diversification—industrially, geographically, and in regard to size—are considered to represent a fair cross section of the country's industrial concerns.

The data submitted by the companies show that there has been serious study of the subject of employment regularization and an increasing effort to control fluctuations in production. Practically all the companies responding to the inquiry have, through extensive and careful planning, undertaken to reduce fluctuations in employment and in many cases have attained a marked degree of success. This success has been greatest in consumer-goods industries; but even in industries (such as those producing capital goods) where the factors that control production are largely of an external nature and beyond the control of management, the effort has been made to flatten production peaks and attain some degree of employment continuity.

The practical effects of improved employment stability are felt by both the workers and the employers. Employees benefit in the matter of their security and in their sustained income; a better employer-employee relationship is maintained; and employers gain in the increased efficiency of their plants and in financial savings. A more stable level of employment has been found to overcome the wastefulness of irregular operation with its direct and indirect costs, including the burden of overhead costs, higher production costs, and losses from idle machines and equipment. Another serious cost factor arising from irregular employment is impairment of the workers' efficiency and productiveness which results from their feeling of insecurity.

As there are great variations in the problems and conditions which different types of industries have to meet, it is difficult to measure the extent to which the companies surveyed have succeeded in providing more regular employment. In some cases conditions are such that stable employment can be secured only for a particular group of employees or a division or department. A large number of companies reported that they had succeeded in regularizing employment for their long-service or "regular" employees, with a smaller number reporting that it had affected the entire force. In other cases the employment of specific groups only could be regularized, or in a few cases, only that basic unit of production employees generally termed "class A." The question of the number of hours of work is often an important factor, and while there was a difference of experience among the companies, the largest number reported that they had been able to maintain some degree of employment regularity only through fluctuation in the length of the workweek. In a large number of cases the companies which have had either great or moderate success in providing stable employment have achieved this only as a result of long planning, scientific management, and practical experimentation with many different methods. The report points out that

any employment regularization effected in the past 3 or 4 years has been attained in the face of serious fluctuations in the volume of business and production.

The results of the attempts of the different companies to solve the regularization problem, it was felt, would be shown by the relation of their employment curve to their production or sales curve. In a large majority of the companies it was found that the employment curve was definitely more stable and maintained a considerably better level than did the production or sales curve.

In a substantial number of cases companies reported that their employment curve has been more stable for several years, and in some cases for a considerable period of time—10 years, 20 years, and longer. Many companies reported this greater stability of employment for the past 3 years; several for the past 2 years; and a few made a special point of the fact that during the past 12 months their careful planning and strenuous efforts have resulted in an increased stability of employment.

Methods for Regularizing Employment

The reports of the companies showed that their efforts had been directed primarily at the two chief factors in employment instability—seasonal fluctuations and cyclical business swings. The methods and techniques followed fell in four main groups, i. e., production, distribution, personnel, and management.

Production control through careful and advance planning is the best-known and most common method for the control of seasonal fluctuations. This involves study of the company's past records, particularly of long-term trends, and consideration of current business conditions throughout the country and the industry; close coordination of manufacturing, sales, advertising, and warehousing departments; scientific production control, budget control, and inventory control; study of the warehousing problem; manufacturing for stock in slack periods and maintaining low inventories in busy seasons.

The distribution problem is attacked by plans for stimulating off-season business; special discounts on slack-season orders; special sales campaigns to promote spreading of the year's business; future billing for early deliveries; the introduction of new models in dull seasons; the use of special advertising to change consumer buying habits; and special advertising campaigns to develop new uses for old products.

In dealing with personnel questions, the methods followed involve forecast of personnel requirements in relation to estimated sales volume and production budget; training employees for greater versatility; departmental interchange of workers; the use of "special squadrons" to carry peak production loads in different departments on a rotating basis; work sharing; flexible workweek; retaining specialized groups of workers in dull seasons at lower rates to do miscellaneous plant work; interchange of employees between a company's different plants according to production requirements; control of hiring so as

to avoid hiring too many new employees in peak seasons; and averaging of work hours—a method which is now restricted by the wage-hour law.

Management methods which affect stabilization measures involve the use of scientific management techniques; diversification of products; development of new products and improvement of old products; waste reclamation and plant maintenance and repair work done as far as possible in slack periods; and closed-down vacation periods to avoid hiring extra workers for short periods.



PERSONNEL POLICIES IN VARIOUS PLANTS

OVER half of the companies recently surveyed by the National Industrial Conference Board deal with their employees through the American Federation of Labor, the Congress for Industrial Organizations, or the railroad brotherhoods. This contrasts with fewer than 12 percent which negotiated through these organizations in 1935. Almost 16 percent of the companies deal through unaffiliated employees' organizations. Closed-shop agreements exist in 11 percent of the companies, while 6 percent have preferential-union shop agreements. The check-off for collection of union dues was provided for by almost 5 percent of the companies surveyed.

This National Industrial Conference Board survey covered 2,700 companies, employing nearly 5 million workers.¹ Over 60 percent of the companies employed from 250 to 5,000 workers, about one-third employed fewer than 250 employees, and nearly 7 percent had 5,000 workers and over. Manufacturing concerns comprised 82 percent of the companies and 57 percent of the total employees covered; the corresponding figures for nonmanufacturing industries were 18 and 43 percent. The largest single group of employees (23.6 percent of the total) was in transportation and communication companies.

Over two-thirds of the companies operated on a 5-day week; and 46 percent of the companies, including 57 percent of all employees, provided paid vacations for their plant employees. A lesser number, 14 percent of the companies, employing 23 percent of the total workers, paid their plant employees for holidays.

Over 56 percent of the companies, including 85 percent of the total workers, gave medical examinations to all new employees; and 14 percent, employing 26 percent of the total workers, gave periodic examinations thereafter. Over 10 percent of the companies had full-time physicians; an additional 30 percent had part-time physicians. Full-time personnel directors were used by 34 percent of the companies which employed almost 70 percent of the total workers.

¹ National Industrial Conference Board, Inc. Studies in Personnel Policy No. 20: Personnel Activities in American Business. New York, March 1940.

EFFECT OF WAR ON EMPLOYMENT, PRICES, AND BUSINESS IN CANADA

GREATER industrial and agricultural activity in Canada, increased employment, and rises in the level of prices for farm products, since the onset of the war, are noted in a recent Canadian report.¹

Employment

The acceleration of Canadian business activity in 1939 provided employment for a large number of persons. In fact, in the last few months of the year, when working forces are usually reduced because of seasonal conditions, the number on the pay rolls increased at a rate which more than offset the normal winter decline.

According to the table below, combined working forces in durable goods, consumers' goods, and services, reached 2,059,000 in January 1940, an increase of 9.6 percent over January 1, 1929. In the same period the estimated population increased from 10,029,000 to 11,314,000, or 12.8 percent. The total number on relief in November 1939 was 582,000, a decline of 26 percent from the number shown for November 1938.

*Estimated Number of Wage Earners Actually Employed in Canada on Specified Dates,
Jan. 1, 1929, to Jan. 1, 1940*

Date	Number of wage earners in specified industries			
	Total	Durable goods	Consumers' goods	Services
Jan. 1, 1929.....	1,878,000	477,000	423,000	978,000
Jan. 1, 1933.....	1,478,000	287,000	329,000	862,000
Jan. 1, 1934.....	1,607,000	375,000	369,000	863,000
Jan. 1, 1935.....	1,722,000	404,000	395,000	923,000
Jan. 1, 1936.....	1,788,000	417,000	422,000	949,000
Jan. 1, 1937.....	1,867,000	440,000	451,000	976,000
Jan. 1, 1938.....	2,017,000	515,000	492,000	1,010,000
Jan. 1, 1939.....	1,931,000	466,000	444,000	1,021,000
Feb. 1, 1939.....	1,884,000	460,000	445,000	978,000
Mar. 1, 1939.....	1,871,000	459,000	439,000	973,000
Apr. 1, 1939.....	1,848,000	441,000	426,000	981,000
May 1, 1939.....	1,871,000	445,000	425,000	1,001,000
June 1, 1939.....	1,969,000	501,000	447,000	1,020,000
July 1, 1939.....	1,999,000	525,000	451,000	1,023,000
Aug. 1, 1939.....	2,014,000	538,000	456,000	1,019,000
Sept. 1, 1939.....	2,032,000	547,000	465,000	1,019,000
Oct. 1, 1939.....	2,068,000	547,000	492,000	1,028,000
Nov. 1, 1939.....	2,110,000	562,000	520,000	1,027,000
Dec. 1, 1939.....	2,110,000	548,000	531,000	1,030,000
Jan. 1, 1940.....	2,059,000	494,000	507,000	1,057,000

The production of war materials for the allied forces is only commencing to get under way, and a continuation of hostilities will require the employment of large numbers of additional workers. The extent of war purchases is difficult to forecast, but there is no doubt that expenditures by Great Britain and France in Canada, together with the spending of the Canadian Government on its own

¹ Ontario Department of Agriculture. Statistics Branch. Monthly Crop Report (Toronto). March 1940.

AND behalf, will amount to a huge total aggregating hundreds of millions of dollars annually, and it is not likely to be very long until practically all employable persons are busily engaged in productive enterprise.

ceased since An improvement in the various branches of general manufacture is shown, the employment index for all manufacturing industries rising from 111.1 in January 1939 to 146.8 in January 1940. The largest increases are reported for textiles, boots and shoes, iron and steel, and foodstuffs.

Wholesale Prices

vided t few cause rate rable uary same 314,- 1939 n for The disadvantage which had existed for a period of time in Canada between farm-produce prices and prices of manufactured goods was accentuated in the first half of 1939, as prices of farm products declined more precipitately than the prices of manufactured goods in the same months. After the war began, however, the prices of farm products rose more sharply than the prices of manufactured goods, and consequently in January 1940 the purchasing power of farm products in terms of manufactured goods was practically restored to the level of January 1939.

Agriculture

Dates, The estimated gross value of agriculture in the Dominion for 1939 is \$1,133,545,000—a gain of \$97,015,000 over the previous year.

ustries It is expected that the war will create a strong demand for the major staple products of the farmers of Canada, among them wheat, bacon, cheese, processed milk, wool, canned tomatoes, and beans. Not all fields of agricultural production, however, have been favorably affected by the war. Restrictions on imports which have been put into effect by the United Kingdom have had an adverse influence on the Canadian export outlet for apples, poultry, tobacco, and certain other products.

Business Expansion

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Since January 1939, business activity has been expanding at an unusually rapid rate. In the first 7 months of last year, the index of physical volume of business rose from 113 (1926 equalling 100) to 125.2. While the outbreak of war resulted in some dislocations, business continued to expand rapidly, and by the beginning of 1940 the index had advanced to 138.6, a rise of 25.6 points in 12 months.

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March In 1939 for 11 metals and minerals, new output records are reported. In that year, for the first time, gold production was in excess of 5,000,000 ounces with a valuation of \$181,300,000 as compared with \$164,561,000 in the preceding year. Total mineral production also reached a new peak. Oil production rose from 6,966,000 barrels in 1938 to 7,743,000 barrels in 1939.

Greater activity was also shown in forestry operations through 1939 than in the preceding year. Output in the last quarter of 1939 was higher than at any time since 1937. The seasonally adjusted employment index for logging for November-February averaged 58.2 percent above the same period in 1938. Large-scale building of ships and airplanes will make a heavy demand for lumber during the war.

In 1939 Canada ranked fourth among the trading nations in the value of exports and fifth in the value of total trade. The only nations exporting more goods than the Dominion in that year were the United States, Great Britain, and Germany.



RECOMMENDATIONS FOR RELOCATION OF INDUSTRIAL POPULATION OF GREAT BRITAIN

THE members of the British Royal Commission of the Industrial Population established in 1937-38 were in unanimous agreement, in their recent report, that the Government should take definite action to prevent further concentration of the industrial population in restricted geographic areas and that a central authority should be created for this purpose.¹ Three separate recommendations were made, however, as to the type of administrative machinery required.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The nine conclusions unanimously adopted by the Commission are as follows:

- (1) National action is necessary.
- (2) A central authority, national in scope and character, is required.
- (3) The activities of this authority should be distinct from and should extend beyond those within the powers of any existing Government department.
- (4) The objectives of national action should be: (a) Continued and further redevelopment of congested urban areas, where necessary; (b) decentralization or dispersal of industries and industrial population from such areas; (c) encouragement of a reasonable balance of industrial development throughout the various divisions or regions of Great Britain, and diversification of industry within the divisions or regions.
- (5) The continued drift of the industrial population to London and the home counties constitutes a social, economic, and strategical problem which demands immediate attention.
- (6) The central authority, whether advisory or executive, should in pursuance of objectives 4 (b) and (c), formulate the plan to be adopted for decentralization or dispersal from congested urban areas taking into account—
 - (i) The congested urban areas where decentralization is desirable.
 - (ii) The extent to which garden cities or garden suburbs, satellite towns, trading estates, further development of existing small towns or regional centers and other appropriate methods should be encouraged or developed in these congested areas.

¹ Data are from Great Britain, Royal Commission on the Distribution of the Industrial Population, Report, London, 1940 (Cmd. 6153); and report of Herschel V. Johnson, Chargé d'Affaires ad Interim, American Embassy, London.

(7) The central authority should have the right to inspect all existing and future planning schemes under current town and country planning legislation, whether regional or local, and to consider changes in plans where necessary, in cooperation with the appropriate Government departments.

(8) The general problem of unemployment lies outside the Commission's terms of reference; and the problem of the special and depressed areas is only covered insofar as large towns are concerned.

(9) The powers of the authority should also include: (a) Collection and coordination of available data on the location of industry; (b) research on natural resources—land, agriculture, amenities, etc.—that may be affected by industrial location; (c) advice to Government, local authorities, and industrialists as to problems of location; and (d) publicity and annual reports.

The Commission was also unanimous in recommending that the Government should appoint a body of experts to examine the questions of compensation, betterment, and development generally.

Administrative Machinery

Government machinery recommended by the majority (i. e. chairman and nine members) would consist of a National Industrial Board, established by law to inquire into, advise upon, and regulate the location of industry. Membership would include a full-time salaried chairman and three other members, and the board would be empowered to require Government departments to nominate representatives to attend its meetings as assessors and to establish divisional or regional bodies to study industrial location problems throughout the country. As the drift of industrial workers to London and the home counties² is the outstanding problem, it was also proposed that the board be given the right from the outset to veto the establishment of new enterprises in these areas. The majority favored preparation of a report by the board, for submission to the Board of Trade for presentation to Parliament, as to the powers necessary to give effect to the foregoing objectives.

Three members subscribed to the majority report with reservations, stating that the negative powers suggested were insufficient. They recommended that the proposed board be granted executive powers to regulate industrial growth throughout the country and not only in Greater London, and that the board should prepare a report indicating the precise powers needed to render it an executive body for the country as a whole. They stated also that the location of industry could not be separated from the persistent, national unemployment problem. To achieve the necessary aims, they added that divisional bodies as well as the national board would be required. Preventive rather than curative action is the major need, according to this opinion.

² Middlesex, Surrey, Kent, Essex, Hertford, and Sussex.

The minority report, signed by three members, recommended more drastic action and that far-reaching powers, to engage in research and to control the location of industry, be granted to a new Government department or one evolved from an existing department. This body, the minority believed, should have the right to plan the location of industrial, agricultural, residential, and recreational requirements. Regional boards formed by the new ministry are contemplated, to exercise negative control by prescribing areas (1) which industry would be free to enter, subject to local planning requirements; (2) where further industrial development would be prohibited, subject to certain exemptions; and (3) where a special case for consent would have to be made out.

The proposed Minister would be permitted to impose the requirements of a general scheme of development upon regional and local planning schemes. Financial assistance, to encourage establishment of garden cities, satellite towns, trading estates, and similar planned communities, could be authorized by the new department.

Conditions Leading to Appointment of the Commission

In 1936 a report of the Commissioner for the Special Areas directed attention to the dangers involved in the continued haphazard growth of Britain's industrial and commercial centers. Following debate of the report in the House of Commons, it was decided to appoint a special body to investigate existing conditions and to make recommendations for later action, with the results shown above.

By the terms of reference the Commission was required to inquire into the causes of the existing distribution of industries and workers and to indicate the probable future course of development; the social, economic, and strategical disadvantages of concentration in large towns or particular areas; and remedial measures, if any, to be taken in the national interest.

Population density in Great Britain is much greater than that in European countries, except Belgium. In addition, the seven chief industrial areas, representing one-fourth of the land area, contain about 79 percent of the total number of persons insured against unemployment. Greater London, consisting of about one-fourteenth of the total land area, has a population of 12,000,000, with 26 percent of the country's gainfully occupied population. London has grown largely at the expense of the rest of the country and because of the change in the pattern of British industry. The heavy industries situated near the coal fields have shrunk in importance. Light industrial production and service and transport trades have expanded in and around the cities.

For a long time the publication of this report has been awaited with great interest by officials and others concerned with the industrial position of Great Britain. Now that it has become available, emergency war conditions make it necessary to postpone the time when action may be taken on the recommendations. A comment on the report as printed in the *Economist* (London) is as follows:

The Royal Commission, if kept alive, will have an invaluable laboratory of events to pick out the problems it was set to examine. When the issues of peacetime transition return with redoubled significance, redoubled because of the different directions taken by industrial location under pressure of war, it will be well equipped to take a leading part in the Herculean labor of reconstruction. * * * While the war is actually in progress, the Commission might serve as an invaluable aide in the vast process of redistribution and transfer—a process for which no clear plan or guidance seems to be discernible yet in Government policy. With the Board of Trade and the Ministry of Labor, with the Ministry of Supply and the Trade Unions, it might perform a most valuable advisory war service.



BRITISH COTTON INDUSTRY BOARD

A COTTON board has been established in Great Britain under the terms of amendatory legislation which received royal assent on March 14, 1940.¹ This body will advise on questions relating to the cotton industry referred to it by any Government department, carry out research, collect and publish statistics, and make findings on ways of expanding the export trade in cotton. Although it was necessary, owing to war conditions, to postpone the effectiveness of the Cotton-Industry Reorganization Act, 1939,² Parliament found that a regulatory organization would be desirable and provided for establishment of the cotton board.

In order to meet the expenses incurred by reason of the board's operations a levy is being imposed on raw cotton purchased by cotton spinners. The rate of the assessment is 5d. per 100 pounds of cotton. The tax was made effective immediately.

¹ Data are from *The Economist* (London), February 17, 1940; and *Manchester Guardian*, March 15, 1940.

² See *Monthly Labor Review*, issues of November 1939 (p. 1086) and January 1940 (p. 70).

Vacations With Pay

PAID VACATIONS IN LATIN AMERICA¹

By EUGENE D. OWEN, *Bureau of Labor Statistics*

FOURTEEN of the Latin American Republics as of April 1940 had legislation in force providing annual vacations with pay for one or more classes of employees, other than those in civil-service employment. In eight of these countries (Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Cuba, Mexico, Peru, and Venezuela) vacations are provided for both salaried and wage-earning employees in certain types of employment, but in the remaining six (Colombia, Ecuador, El Salvador, Haiti, Panama, and Uruguay) only salaried employees are covered. In Mexico, only persons working under labor contracts are legally entitled to vacations with pay. Domestic servants are specifically covered in Bolivia, Chile, Ecuador, and Peru; seamen or port workers or both in Brazil, Chile, and Uruguay; and agricultural and mining personnel in Peru. Though several of the republics had earlier legislation which has been replaced, the earliest legislation now in effect governing vacations with pay in various countries dates from the following years: El Salvador, 1927; Chile, Mexico, and Panama, 1931; Peru, 1932; Brazil and Uruguay, 1933; Argentina, Colombia, and Haiti, 1934; Cuba, 1935; Venezuela, 1936; Ecuador, 1938; and Bolivia, 1939.

All of the Latin American Republics, except Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and Paraguay, are members of the International Labor Organization. The 1936 convention of that Organization providing for annual holidays with pay was ratified by Mexico in 1937 and by Brazil in 1938; since that time Mexico has enacted legislation putting it into force for certain groups. The 1936 convention providing for annual holidays with pay for seamen has not yet been ratified by any of the Latin American Republics.

Length of vacation varies with years of service in Argentina, Bolivia, and Mexico; with days of service in the qualifying period in Brazil and Chile; and with type of employment in Bolivia, Mexico, Peru, and Venezuela. Legislation which provides no variation in length of vacation allows the following periods each year: Colombia, 15 working days; Cuba, 14 days (7 for 6 months); Ecuador, 15 days; El

¹ This article is based upon the laws and official reports of the countries covered and upon the legislative series of the International Labor Office, Geneva.

Salvador, not less than 15 days; Haiti, at least 15 days; Panama, 1 month; and Uruguay, 2 weeks. Vacations vary from a minimum of 4 to 6 days per year in Mexico to 30 days or to a month in certain cases in Argentina, Bolivia, Mexico, Panama, and Peru. Under special circumstances vacations are cumulative, but for not more than 2 years in Chile, Colombia, and Panama, for 3 years in Ecuador and El Salvador, and for not to exceed 6 periods in Brazil.

Penalties for noncompliance with vacation legislation are specifically provided in the laws of Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Cuba, Ecuador, El Salvador, Mexico, Peru, Uruguay, and Venezuela.

Details of the legislation governing vacations with pay in the Latin American Republics which follow deal with coverage, qualifying period, date of vacation and method of fixing it, length of vacation, etc.

Argentina

Salaried and wage-earning employees in commercial enterprises in Argentina are entitled to an uninterrupted vacation each year, with pay at their regular rate, under a law of September 21, 1934. The minimum length of vacation varies with the years of service as follows: For service of not to exceed 5 years, 10 days; from 5 to 10 years, 15 days; from 10 to 20 years, 20 days; and over 20 years, 30 days. The employer is to choose the time when vacations are to be taken.

Bolivia

The Bolivian Labor Code of May 24, 1939, authorizes annual paid vacations for salaried and wage-earning employees and domestic servants.

Annual paid vacations are to be given to salaried and wage-earning employees according to the following scale: For those who have served uninterruptedly for more than 1 year but less than 5 years in an enterprise, 1 week; for those with 5 but less than 10 years, 2 weeks; for those with more than 10 but less than 20 years, 3 weeks; and for those with more than 20 years, a month. Persons employed in enterprises which by their nature suspend work at certain times of the year shall not receive vacations if the suspension lasts not less than 15 days and if during that time they receive their normal pay.

Domestic servants who have served in the same house for more than a year must be given an annual vacation of 10 days with full pay.

Brazil

Salaried and wage-earning employees in commercial, banking, and industrial establishments, and the crews of national vessels are entitled to vacations with pay.

Commercial employees.—Fifteen working days of paid vacation per year were authorized for salaried and wage-earning employees in commercial and banking enterprises, private relief institutions, and the commercial departments of industrial establishments by a decree of August 19, 1933. An amendment to this law, passed July 10, 1936, provided that persons owning stock in the employing company, who do not receive fixed salaries equivalent to as much as 80 percent of the usual salary for similar work in that region, are excluded, as are also certain representatives of autonomous commercial establishments; but these classes of persons may have vacations of the same length without pay.

The vacation is earned by 12 months' uninterrupted employment in one enterprise, and must be taken during the following 12 months, at the time that best suits the employer. In no case is it to be cumulative. The employee is to be notified in writing at least a week in advance. For all persons under 18 years and for those over 50 years the leave must be taken in one period, but other persons in exceptional cases may take it in two periods, one of which shall be not less than 7 days. An employee who works for pay during his vacation forfeits the next vacation to which he would be entitled.

The pay for the vacation is to be based on the cash remuneration for 15 days or a half month for persons working by the day or month, respectively, and for persons working on commission or percentage, the average daily amount received during the 12 months' qualifying service will be taken as a basis. This amount is to be paid not later than the day preceding the vacation. The employee is to give a written receipt for the notice of his vacation and for his vacation pay. Workdays missed without good reason may be deducted from vacation time and pay. An employer who fails to grant a vacation in the manner prescribed by law must pay the employee thus defrauded double the value of the vacation refused.

Industrial workers.—From 7 to 15 days of paid vacation per year are authorized for salaried and wage-earning employees, members of workers' associations approved by the Ministry of Labor, Industry, and Commerce, who are employed in any kind of industrial establishment, newspaper, in land or air communication and transportation whether privately or Government controlled, the industrial departments of commercial enterprises, small-scale workshops, laboratories, etc., by a decree of January 18, 1934. (The decree does not apply to agricultural workers nor to seamen.)

The vacation is earned by 12 months' employment in one company, and must be granted during the 12 months following the completion of the qualifying period, at the time best suited to the interests of the enterprise. It is not cumulative. The employee is to be notified

of his vacation at least a week in advance by letter or by notice posted at the working place. It may be granted in a single period or in installments of at least 5 days each. Members of a family employed in the same establishment may take their vacation at the same time if they so desire.

Employers must grant a vacation of 15 days to employees who have worked for them more than 250 days in the preceding 12 months; 11 days if they have worked from 200 to 250 days, and 7 days if they have worked from 150 to 200 days. Persons who have been employed for less than 150 days during the preceding 12-month period are not entitled to a paid vacation. During his vacation an employee must not work in any establishment whatever, under penalty of the forfeiture of the next vacation to which he would be entitled.

Pay for vacation time is based upon the average cash remuneration during the last 6 months of the qualifying period. The employee must give a receipt for such pay, stating the date on which his vacation begins and ends. An employer who does not grant a vacation to an employee entitled to it must pay the latter double the value of the vacation not granted, unless refusal is based on a provision of the decree.

Workdays missed without legitimate reason may be deducted from the vacation time, and a corresponding deduction may be made from the vacation pay.

Crews of vessels.—A law of June 19, 1937, regulated by a decree of October 13, 1937, provides from 7 to 15 days of paid vacation per year for the crews of national vessels of all kinds. The pay for the vacation shall be the average monthly cash amount as assessed every year, increased by the traveling allowance due the seaman. With the consent of the shipowner, a seaman may accumulate annual leave, but not to exceed six periods in all. Annual leave shall be considered to have been taken if the seaman voluntarily fails to avail himself of it. When a vacation is not granted by the shipowner the seaman is entitled to double compensation for the time thus lost. When the crew consists of fewer than six persons, not more than one may be absent on vacation at a time. In case public interest demands it, vacations already begun or about to begin may be suspended, to be completed or taken later.

Most of the provisions for seamen are the same as, or closely resemble, those for industrial employees.

Chile

Salaried and wage-earning employees in Chile, including workers in industrial and commercial enterprises, municipal employees, officers and seamen in the national merchant marine, registered long-

shoremen and dock workers, wage earners in river or lake navigation, in aviation, or in submarine and underground work, and domestic servants, enjoy vacations with pay by virtue of the Labor Code of May 13, 1931, amended and extended by laws of May 24, 1932, February 8, 1934, and January 29 and February 16, 1937, and decrees of September 29, 1938, and August 28, 1939.

Salaried employees who have worked in an establishment for a year are entitled to 15 working days' vacation each year with full pay; with the approval of the labor inspectorate having jurisdiction they may accumulate it for 2 years. Cash in lieu of vacation is allowed only if the employee is leaving the establishment. Application for the vacation must be made in writing, at least a month in advance, and the employer must set the time in a written notice for the employee to keep. Vacations are to be granted preferably in the spring or summer, and in such a manner that, in an establishment or section with more than five employees, at least four-fifths of them are on duty at all times; if there are fewer than five employees, not more than one is to be on vacation at a time. Enterprises are to report annually, to the labor inspectorate having jurisdiction, the vacations they grant.

Municipal employees with a year of service in the commune are entitled to 15 days of paid vacation each year.

Shipowners are required to grant ship's officers who have completed a year of service with them an annual vacation of 15 working days with full pay.

Wage-earning employees, including members of crews in the national merchant marine, registered longshoremen and dock workers, and wage earners employed in river or lake navigation, in aviation, or in submarine and underground work, who have been employed in an enterprise for 288 days in a year, are entitled to 15 days of annual leave with full pay; persons who have been employed for 220 but less than 288 days are to receive 7 days. The leave is to be granted and distributed in conformity with the internal regulations; it is not compensable in cash unless an employee is leaving the employment. For maritime workers whose hours are irregular, the hours of work are totaled and divided into days of work as a basis for computing vacations, and pay is to be based on remuneration in cash and kind. When the ship on which a seaman is employed sails before he has time to complete his vacation, he may defer the remainder until his return or he may divide his vacation into two parts, upon written application to the shipowner. No penalties are specified for failure of employers to grant vacations to their wage-earning employees.

Domestic servants with a year of uninterrupted service in the same household are to receive 15 days of paid vacation per year.

Colombia

Salaried employees of private firms in Colombia have the right to 15 days of uninterrupted vacation, with pay, after each year of service, according to a law of November 20, 1934, and a decree of April 6, 1935. The National Labor Bureau, by its decision of October 21, 1936, ruled that the 15 days should be working days rather than calendar days. The time for the vacation is to be fixed by the employer so as not to interfere with the work of the enterprise nor with the employee's rest. Neither employer nor employee may stipulate the substitution of cash payment in lieu of the vacation. For technical and confidential employees whom it would be difficult to replace for a short time, the yearly vacation may be cumulative, but for one period only. For persons employed at a distance from their families, it may be cumulative for a longer period, but only after permission of the Labor Bureau, with knowledge of the facts. Working days missed without just cause may be penalized, but may not be deducted from annual leave.

Cuba

Salaried and wage-earning employees, and apprentices, in Cuban commercial and industrial establishments (including sugar mills), which employ more than five salaried or wage-earning employees, are entitled to 14 working days' vacation for each year (or 7 days for each 6 months) of uninterrupted employment for the same employer, to be paid for in advance. Vacations are governed by a law of March 22, 1935, regulated by decrees of July 10, 1936, and June 7, 1939, and amplified by resolutions of October 29, 1935, July 24, 1936, and July 13, 1937, of the Secretary of Labor. Agricultural employees and domestic servants other than those employed in philanthropic institutions and sport or recreational clubs are excepted. The time for vacations is to be fixed by the employer to suit his convenience, with consideration for the employees when possible, but in such a manner that the operation of the enterprise is not suspended. Shut-downs, in order to give the paid vacations due, are forbidden.

Absence from work because of sickness or accident, interruption of the operations of an establishment by force majeure, or a lawful strike or lock-out, or on account of seasonal slack periods, are not considered as interruptions of the year's work; but dismissal for cause, absence from work for more than 6 months, or acceptance of remunerative work during the vacation period are causes for the cancelation of the right to vacations already earned. This legislation does not preclude an employer's granting longer paid vacations for seniority, efficiency, or the greater degree of effort required for certain work. Compensation ordinarily received in kind is to be paid in cash for the vacation

period. If the Ministry of Labor decides that the condition of the business makes it expedient to postpone or reduce the vacation, the unused portion of time shall be carried forward to the following year and the employee is to receive as compensation for such postponement, an amount equal to at least one-third of his usual pay. Employees may not waive their right to paid vacations nor, except under specified conditions, may an employee be dismissed while on vacation. Persons who have worked in an establishment at least 6 months, whose service there terminates or whose pay or classification is reduced through no fault of their own before the end of the 6 or 12 months' qualifying period, have a right to pay for the proportional part of 7 or 14 days' vacation which they have earned.

Persons who regularly work a limited number of days per month, fortnight, or week, for a total of 6 months of actual work and those who work for the same employer in accordance with law or collective agreement for 1,248 hours of actual work in consecutive months may claim 7 working days of vacation, to be paid for at the beginning thereof. Vacations may not be deferred more than 6 months beyond the qualifying period unless authorized by the Secretariat of Labor. Salaried and wage-earning employees in public-service enterprises of continuous operation, who work on holidays in addition to working days, are entitled to 1 day's vacation for every 52 working hours, to be applied toward their vacation period.

Ecuador

The Ecuadorean Labor Code of August 5, 1938, established vacations for employees of private concerns and for domestic servants.

Employees of private concerns have a right to 15 days of continuous vacation in each year of work, at a time to be fixed by the employer so as not to interfere with the effectiveness of the vacation. The month in which the employee is to have his vacation is to be specified in the contract, but in case of no written contract or such fixing of date, the employer shall, 3 months in advance, notify the employee of the month in which he is to have his vacation. An employer may withhold the vacation of a confidential or technical employee for 1 year, making it cumulative for the following year, when it is difficult to replace him for a short time; if he has left the employer's service before the time to take the vacation he must be paid double time for the vacation time lost. An employee may accumulate annual leave for 3 years, to take it the fourth, but if he leaves the employer's service without having taken the vacation he shall be paid for only the time accumulated, with no increase. If the employee who handles funds takes a vacation, he may furnish a substitute at his sole responsibility, with the approval of the employer.

If the employer does not accept the substitute, but uses some other person, the responsibility of the vacationing employee ceases.

Domestic servants who have served the same family more than a year without interruption have a right to an annual vacation of 15 days with full pay.

El Salvador

Commercial employees in El Salvador have a right to not less than 15 days of vacation each year, paid in advance, which may be accumulated for not more than 3 years and taken at a single period, under decrees of May 31 and November 4, 1927. The time of the vacation is to be fixed 1 month in advance by agreement between employer and employee. If in any year an employee fails to take the vacation to which he has a right, the employer is required to give him a written certificate to that effect; failure to comply with this provision or to grant a vacation which an employee has earned subjects the employer to a cash fine. If the employee has failed to take his leave for 3 years, he may take the vacation time to which he is entitled at any time, but not to exceed that due for 3 years.

By decision of the Conciliation Commission, the legislation has been interpreted as applying to industrial as well as to commercial enterprises.

Haiti

Salaried employees in the public administration services and clerks in commercial establishments, shops, and banks, are entitled, under a law of August 10, 1934, to at least 15 days of vacation each year without reduction of pay, such vacation to be granted in a single period.

Mexico

Workers in Mexico with more than 1 year's service are to have an annual paid vacation, which shall be fixed in their labor contract, of not less than 4 working days, and after 2 years' service of at least 6 working days, under the Mexican Federal Labor Law of August 28, 1931. A worker is defined as any person who renders manual or intellectual services, or both, to another by virtue of a labor contract. Any time of unjustified absence from work may be deducted by the employer from the vacation time.

Some collective labor agreements in Mexico, supported by Presidential decrees, specify more extensive vacations for workers than the Labor Law requires. A temporary agreement of August 5, 1937, in the silk and artificial-silk industry granted workers with more than a year's service 6 days' paid vacation in the spring, and persons with 6 months' service 3 days with and 3 days without pay. A collective

agreement of July 20, 1937, in the woolen-textile industry authorizes 10 "natural" days of vacation each year for all workers who have been employed in the enterprise for more than a year, to be paid for on the day preceding the vacation. The agreement of January 16, 1938, in the rubber industry, stipulates for permanent workers, regardless of their length of service, 6 days' vacation each year, paid for in advance. By the terms of a collective labor agreement in the cotton-textile industry, effective from April 27, 1939, all enterprises must give their workers with a year or more of service an annual vacation of 12 working days (which may be divided into two parts) with full pay, at a time agreed upon between the parties; workers who have been employed for less than 12 months have a right to a paid vacation varying in length with the number of days worked.

In the sugar, alcohol, and similar industries, a collective agreement, effective December 22, 1939, authorized for the first year of service 10 consecutive days of paid vacation, for the second and subsequent years 14 such days; vacations for shorter periods of service are to be in proportion, and persons who work throughout the grinding season (*zafra*), whatever its duration, shall have 7 consecutive days of paid vacation, those with shorter service having proportionally shorter vacations. Under the provisions of the collective agreement in the petroleum industry, workers with 1 to 10 years' service get 21 working days of vacation with pay each year, and those with more than 10 years' service, 30 working days. Temporary workers are entitled to vacation after 275 days' service. Special paid vacations may be granted in case of force majeure and for the discharge of temporary or permanent duties on behalf of the workers' organization or of the State.

Panama

Salaried employees in commercial or industrial establishments in Panama are entitled to annual paid vacations, under laws of February 11, 1931, and October 13, 1936, and a resolution of November 7, 1936.

After 2 years of continuous service, salaried employees in commercial and industrial establishments are to have 1 month's vacation with pay in each subsequent year; such vacation time may be accumulated for not more than 2 years. The vacation may be taken at the end of the qualifying period, or during any later month, by agreement with the employer. If the vacation accumulates for 2 years, both months may be taken together.

The resolution authorizing vacations for employees of private firms states that these vacations are governed by the same principles established for public employees in the administrative code. It would therefore appear that the employee is entitled to the paid vacation if, during his qualifying period of 24 months, he has not been absent from

work more than 30 days on account of sickness or for any other cause, and if, during his absence, the work can be satisfactorily cared for by his fellow employees; he may claim a month's pay instead of the vacation to which he has earned a right if there is no one to take his place, or if, after 24 months on duty, he resigns or is discharged for cause other than fault committed by him.

Peru

Vacations with pay for salaried and wage-earning employees in commercial, industrial, agricultural, and mining enterprises and workshops and for certain domestic servants in Peru were established and regulated by laws of April 8, 1932, and February 13, 1940, and decrees of August 31, 1933, December 17, 1936, and May 9, 1939.

Wage-earning employees in commercial, industrial, agricultural, and mining enterprises and workshops and domestic servants in these enterprises who have been employed in the same establishment for at least a year, and have actually worked at least 260 days during that year are entitled to 15 consecutive days of vacation each year, not cumulative, to be taken at any time they may choose, but not at a time when the operation of the establishment will be hampered. The work year is defined for each employee as the year beginning with his starting to work in an enterprise, rather than the calendar year. The vacation is to be taken after the right to it has been earned. Persons working in establishments which operate only 4 or 5 days each week, or which are subject to temporary stoppages of work by order of the management, are entitled to annual leave if they have been absent from work without cause on fewer than 10 occasions.

A day's work is defined as that performed on an ordinary day lasting more than 4 hours. Saturday is to be considered a day of actual work, whether or not this limit is exceeded. Days of absence from work due to industrial accident, sickness duly proved, or suspension are to count as days actually worked for computation of vacations. Work continued beyond the statutory working day by orders of the owner of the establishment is to be considered a separate day's work if continued for more than 3 but less than 7 hours.

Technical workers who are not granted vacations because they cannot be temporarily replaced are, when this is confirmed by the labor authorities, to receive 3 times the usual remuneration for the vacation not granted. The taking of annual leave, except in the case just cited, is compulsory and may not be renounced. Employees already enjoying longer periods of paid vacation each year are to continue to receive these longer vacations. Persons working by the day are to be paid for 13 days' work, but if they regularly work Sundays and holidays, they are to be paid for 15 days. Piece workers are to be paid the entire amount they earned during the preceding

15 days if they worked 13 days during that time; otherwise, the amount earned during the last 15 days of which they actually worked 13 days.

Salaried public employees and employees working for banking, commercial, and industrial establishments have the right to 30 consecutive days of paid vacation each year. The time for the vacations of banking, commercial, and industrial employees is to be fixed by agreement between the parties; they may also, by agreement, change it to 15 days, with a half month's additional pay.

Uruguay

Salaried employees in commercial establishments and in private offices and salaried employees and clerical staffs in the offices of industrial establishments, with more than 1 year's service to their credit, are entitled to annual paid leave for 2 weeks (consecutive, continuous, or in two equal installments), under a decree-law of April 27, 1933, extended by a law of January 23, 1934, and decrees of April 28 and June 6, 1933, January 19, 1934, January 11, 1935, February 17, 1936, January 14, 1938, and June 16 and July 7, 1939, and resolution of September 7, 1933. This requirement does not apply to hairdressing establishments, but covers personnel in warehouses and workers in commercial establishments who prepare or arrange merchandise for the needs of the establishment itself, cleaners, watchmen, and repairers of merchandise.

The executive authority may authorize exceptions from the obligation to grant vacations with pay in the case of enterprises which meet general and permanent needs of the population if they provide equivalent advantages for their personnel, and provided that at least four-fifths of their employees expressly declare themselves in favor of this action. The employees may not surrender their right to vacation, and employers who make no provision for vacations are subject to fines, which are doubled for repetition of the offense. In case of a serious offense by the employee in connection with his work, the employer may suspend the granting of his vacation, but the employee has the right of appeal to the Superior Labor Council, which has final authority.

In January of each year (in the preceding December for vacations to be granted in January), establishments required to grant vacations must submit to the National Labor Institute in triplicate their schedule of vacations for the year for approval or modification. For special reasons approved by the institute the schedule may be altered twice in the year. The schedule as approved, showing the date of vacation for each employee, must be posted in a visible place in the

establishment. Navigation enterprises must notify their employees of their vacations at least 3 days in advance, but private banks may notify their personnel on the day the vacation begins.

Venezuela

Annual vacations of 7 working days for wage-earning employees and 15 days for salaried employees with more than a year of uninterrupted service are authorized in Venezuela by the Labor Law of July 16, 1936, and regulated by a decree of November 30, 1938. Pay for such leave is to be made at the beginning of the vacation.

Deductions are not to be made from vacations for the time of advance notice nor for absence because of illness duly proved to incapacitate for work. Justifiable absences from work (those authorized by the employer for the performance of civic duties and for other causes approved by the labor authorities) and the lapse of less than 3 months between contracts with the same employer or periods of employment upon work in the same enterprise shall not be considered interruptions of the work; but the vacation may be postponed for a length of time equivalent to the total of such time lost, not to exceed 3 months. All unjustifiable absence from work exceeding a total of 7 days in the year is to be deducted from vacation time. During vacations, workers who ordinarily receive part of their remuneration in food or lodging or both may choose between continuance of such service and payment of its cash equivalent, fixed by agreement between the parties, or in case of disagreement, by the labor inspector. Workers who accept paid employment during their annual vacations lose the right to be paid their usual wages during the vacation. So far as possible, vacation time is to be set by agreement between the parties, otherwise by the labor inspector.

Industrial Relations

NATIONAL AGREEMENT IN COTTON-TEXTILE INDUSTRY IN MEXICO, 1939 ¹

MORE generous annual paid vacations and maternity leave than those provided in the Federal Labor Law of August 18, 1931,² have been obtained by the workers in the cotton-textile industry in Mexico, as a result of a national collective agreement effective from April 27, 1939, and made applicable to the industry in the entire Republic by a presidential decree. The agreement is revisable after 2 years.

Coverage and Administration

The present contract applies to all the factories in the Republic engaged in the spinning, weaving, printing, dyeing, and finishing of cotton, and the preparation and spinning and weaving of other fibers which are mixed with cotton, or which are manufactured by similar processes, and associated processes carried on in the factories. Provisions which establish greater benefits for the workers than those provided in the Federal Labor Law are to be binding upon the industry, but otherwise the provisions of the labor law apply.

Those persons who are engaged exclusively by, and under the direct orders of, the administration, in specified work, certain clerks and other designated personnel not directly connected with the manufacturing processes, are covered by the new agreement with regard to the general conditions of labor and pay, but cannot belong to the general union of workers of the respective factories; they may, however, belong to the association of their respective groups. The management retains exclusive administration of all the work done in the factory, but the workers' unions, through executive committees or delegates, may intervene directly regarding the application of the legal and technical aspects of the contract and the scale of wages.

The executive committees and delegates of the majority unions, legally registered by the enterprises themselves, are recognized as the only legal representatives of the occupational interests of the workers.

¹ Contrato colectivo de trabajo, obligatorio en la industria textil del algodón y sus mixturas (edición oficial, in *Revista del Trabajo*, Departamento Autónomo de Prensa y Publicidad, Mexico, D. F., August 1939).

² U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Bulletin No. 569: Labor Legislation of Mexico. Washington, 1932.

Employment and Promotion

With the exception of the persons excluded from general union membership, employment lists are to be controlled by the contracting unions. For positions in the enterprise, except those specifically excluded, the enterprise may employ only persons presented by the union, except when the applicant suffers from a contagious disease, when he has a chronic ailment which renders him less capable of doing the work, when he is physically incapable of doing it, or when he has been discharged from the same enterprise for cause or has chosen dismissal indemnity in case of unjustified dismissal. No new worker may occupy a position to which a worker already employed would have a right by seniority, unless the latter has been proved to be incompetent. In case the union cannot furnish suitable persons within 8 days, the enterprise shall temporarily employ such substitute workers as it can get, but these persons must first apply for membership in the contracting union. To obtain work in a factory, a worker must prove his physical competence by means of a certificate issued by the company physician. An unfavorable decision may be appealed by the union. With the exception of substitutes, every worker shall be considered a regular employee from the date of his admission to work. The contracting unions have a right to ask and obtain from the enterprise the discharge of workers who resign or are expelled from the union, but this action can be deferred when the union does not duly provide substitutes.

Workers in an establishment are listed on three rolls—permanent, temporary, and casual. Casual workers are those who fill the vacancies caused by the absence of the other workers. Lists of qualified substitutes for the enterprises to use in filling vacancies, prepared by the unions, are not to contain a number of workers greater than 10 percent of the permanent workers in the factory, by departments. Substitute workers are to enjoy the benefits of the labor legislation only while employed, including vacations in proportion to the number of days worked during the year.

Each factory is to have a seniority list. Promotion is to be determined by seniority and competence of the worker, and seniority by the length of time one has worked at his present position. For vacancies of less than a week, the class immediately below shall be utilized. If a worker promoted to a position to which he is entitled does not within 15 days show that he is competent, he shall return to his former position.

Hours of Work and Rest

The first, or day, shift is to work 48 hours per week, and the second and third 42 hours each. The first and second shifts shall be considered permanent, except second shifts caused by extraordinary con-

sumer demands and those at irregular intervals. In the future third shifts may be established only by agreement between the parties. The first shift shall begin between 6 and 8 a. m., and the doors shall be closed promptly at the time work is to begin. The break in the day shift for lunch shall be not less than an hour nor more than an hour and a half; other shifts shall not be interrupted for lunch, except by agreement to the contrary. For work on days considered rest days in this contract, if the rest day is not ordinarily paid for, the pay shall be by agreement; but for a paid rest day the enterprise shall pay double time in addition to the ordinary pay. Six compulsory rest days with pay are specified in the contract and 7 which the workers have the right to take, as holidays without pay. All enterprises shall give their workers who have a year or more of service 12 workdays' vacation with full pay each year, at a time agreed upon, and such vacation period may, by agreement between the parties, be divided into two parts. Workers who have been employed less than 12 months have a right to a vacation in proportion to the number of days worked.

The minimum wage in the cotton-textile industry is fixed at 2.80 pesos for an 8-hour day; other wages are as established in this contract, and shall be uniform for all the enterprises to which the contract applies. Wages shall be paid on Saturdays or on the last working day each week, in the places of work, and during working hours. The uniform rates in this agreement constitute the minimum wage to be paid for each type of work on the day shift, in each factory. Second and third shifts shall receive the following increases over the rates specified in the uniform scales: Piece workers, second shift, 12.5 percent; third shift, 17.5 percent. Day workers, second shift, for 7 hours of work, pay for 8 hours; third shift, for 7 hours of work, pay for 8 hours, increased by 10 percent.

Claims and Absence From Work

All workers' claims must be presented through the representatives of the unions, during working hours, to the employer who shall settle urgent claims as soon as is humanly possible and all others within 6 days, but the latter period may be lengthened by agreement between the parties.

Upon application by the union to which the worker belongs leave of absence on union business shall be granted for the time necessary; for sickness or common accidents, for the time the disability lasts; to engage in public duties, for the time that the duties require; and for personal business, not less than 3 nor more than 15 days (this can be extended to 30 days, and in urgent cases permits can be granted for only 1 day). Permits for collective absence shall invariably be

granted by the enterprise, and must be requested by the contracting union, in writing, 24 hours in advance, or, in cases of urgency, without this advance notice; but a condition for the granting of leave, individual or collective, is that it shall not interfere with the work of the establishment. Every worker absent for 8 days without authorization shall lose his job, unless he can prove that the absence was due to force majeure.

Social Welfare, Including Workmen's Compensation

In the matter of workmen's compensation the agreement provides conditions more favorable to the workers than did the Federal Labor Law. In case of the worker's death, his specified beneficiaries shall receive compensation in the amount of 825 days' wages, as well as 45 days' wages to cover funeral expenses. For permanent and total disability, the compensation is 1,095 days' wages. Permanent partial disability benefits shall be computed on the basis of 1,095 days. For temporary disability, the worker shall receive, while unable to work, 100 percent of wages from the third day.

Employers who at present furnish housing free to their workers shall continue to do so. Each such settlement shall have a lighting system and sufficient drinking water, at the expense of the employer. When for any reason an employee leaves his employment he must vacate within a month, and in the meantime shall pay his rent weekly.

Employers are required to pay weekly to the union an amount equivalent to 2.75 percent of the pay roll of the workers, to be used for social welfare, unless an agreement is reached whereby it shall be administered by both parties or by the employer alone. This fund shall be applied toward every kind of social welfare not charged to the employer in the Federal Labor Law. The services include medical and pharmaceutical aid for workers for nonoccupational illness, financial aid to workers who, upon medical advice, are absent from work for nonoccupational illness, funeral expenses of workers who die from nonoccupational illness, and financial aid to workers who, because of their age and length of time in the factory, are totally incapacitated for work.

Maternity leave shall be 45 days, so distributed that at least a month shall be after childbirth.

Requirements for Employers and Workers

An employer who does not furnish his workers with the materials they need in order to do their work efficiently shall pay them for the time thus lost. Finished products of the plant must bear the initials of the union. Employers must furnish protective equipment for

doing the work, such as masks, gloves, rubber boots, goggles, and aprons. They shall also furnish overalls to workers in bleaching and printing and in indigo dyeing, for the manufacture of mixed cloth, to be used exclusively in the interior of the factories.

Employers must permit representatives of the union to distribute and sell union publications in the places where payment is made in the interior of the factory, on pay day. Employers are required to make available to the unions, in order to verify the carrying out of the conditions of the wage scale, the instruments and apparatus necessary to test the quality and resistance of the materials.

When, for any of the reasons given in the law or in this contract, a factory closes, and later partially or totally reopens, the enterprise must announce its opening at least 15 days in advance, and in addition the workers are allowed by the Federal Labor Law 30 days in which to report after work is resumed.

Every representative of an enterprise who is proved guilty of an offense against the workers shall be permanently suspended from his job. Employers are prohibited from intervention in the internal affairs of the unions.

Enterprises shall be required to encourage recreation among their workers, furnishing them, so far as their means justify, with recreational equipment and means to construct and arrange their athletic fields.

Union meetings are to be held outside of working hours, except in case of urgency as specified in this contract. Workers are prohibited from making collections which are not for union purposes and are not authorized by the unions. Every person is forbidden to smoke or use matches in places where inflammable materials are located, and also to bring in intoxicating drinks or certain drugs.

Apprenticeship

Apprentices shall be furnished by the contracting union; they shall be 16 to 20 years of age, and shall be subject to the requirements of this contract for new employees. Length of apprenticeship varies from 6 months for preparation of yarn to 36 months for certain operations, especially those related to coloring or bleaching. During the first half year, apprentices shall be paid 1.50 pesos daily, and for each additional half year, an increase of 0.30 peso daily. At any time, at the request of the employer or of the union, the apprentice can be examined by a commission of employers and workers, and if the examination is unsatisfactory the apprentice may be replaced by one better fitted for the occupation.

Wages

A comprehensive scale of rates of pay for work, both by piece and by time, is appended to the agreement. The rates are of two kinds, uniform-minimum and specific rates. For various operations, the normal day's work and variations allowed are given, also duties associated with certain jobs and the number of workers required for a specified number of each kind of machines. Though rates given are generally for piece work and for work by the day, some rates shown are by the week, especially those paid supervisors and salaried employees. For certain machines used in spinning and weaving, the normal number of revolutions is given, and employers using machines of such antiquated pattern that workers cannot do the ordinary amount of work must either retire the machines from use or pay the difference between the wages the workers earn when using the antiquated machines and what they would earn if they used modern machines.

In addition to salaries of specified salaried employees, minimum salaries are fixed for six classes of clerical workers, of which all but the lowest-paid class are excluded from general union membership. Clerks must be able to read and write and be able to perform the four fundamental mathematical processes and must have had sufficient office practice to be able to perform the duties of the office—but in certain meritorious cases the administration may dispense with the requirement of experience. Assistants are persons who do not have all the qualifications, but are learning while they work. Minimum weekly pay of clerks, classes 5 to 1, varies from 33.60 to 55.22 pesos, and of assistants from 21.75 to 28.50 pesos.

The agreement provides that both salaried and wage-earning employees not specifically listed in the agreement are to receive increases over their daily average pay on March 16, 1938, as stated below:

<i>Average daily pay</i>	<i>Percent of increase</i>	<i>Average daily pay</i>	<i>Percent of increase</i>
2.01 to 2.50 pesos.....	45. 0	6.01 to 6.50 pesos.....	32. 5
2.51 to 3.50 pesos.....	42. 5	6.51 to 7.00 pesos.....	29. 5
3.51 to 4.00 pesos.....	40. 0	7.01 to 7.50 pesos.....	25. 5
4.01 to 4.50 pesos.....	39. 0	7.51 to 8.00 pesos.....	21. 5
4.51 to 5.00 pesos.....	38. 0	8.01 to 8.50 pesos.....	18. 0
5.01 to 5.50 pesos.....	36. 5	8.51 pesos or more.....	16. 0
5.51 to 6.00 pesos.....	35. 0		

Persons covered by agreements entered into before the labor authority after March 16, 1938, shall have their pay increased by the same percentages applied to the pay for new workers in the agreements, but higher wages in effect when this contract becomes effective shall continue to be paid. The same percentage increases shall also be applied to sewing-thread factories and to persons engaged in certain processes that are applied to goat's hair and to flax and hemp.

A master workman, whose pay, by the application of the rates of this contract, is lower than that of his immediate subordinate, shall be paid at a rate equal to that of his subordinate plus 10 percent.

The wage scale was to become effective April 1, 1939, but employers were to have 3 weeks from that date in which to make the calculations necessary to apply it to each worker; other provisions of the contract were to become effective April 27, 1939. The present contract does not include in its scale of wages pay for the seventh day or the weekly rest day, which was granted by decree of February 20, 1936.³

³ See Monthly Labor Review, May 1936 (p. 1373).

Women in Industry

WOMEN IN WARTIME IN GERMANY¹

A FEW years ago German women were being increasingly barred from wage earning and restricted to household duties. Now, however, under pressure of war conditions, they are being pressed into a widening variety of new occupations, to take the place of men called to the colors. This in turn has created certain other problems which the authorities are trying to meet through welfare work.

Compulsory Labor

According to a decree of February 15, 1938, all unmarried female employees under 25 years of age, who were to begin work on or after March 1, 1938, were required to perform 1 year of compulsory housework in a family with several children. No employer is permitted to hire any unmarried women under 25 for initial service in textile or tobacco factories or in offices of industrial or municipal enterprises, without assurance that she has complied with this stipulation.

While many industries have speeded up activities within recent months, others with little or no relation to the war have been curtailed or closed down. This has resulted in a great lack of labor on the one hand, and an appreciable number of free workers on the other. All firms intending to reduce or dismiss staffs must immediately report to the local labor office, which orders free workers to needed places regardless of the type of former occupation.

Agricultural labor service for women, voluntary at the beginning, but compulsory by decree of September 4, 1939, is expected from all young women between 17 and 25 years of age who are not fully engaged in any occupation or in any occupational training, and who are not needed to work on their own farm homes. They can be called for 6 months' service, chiefly in rural districts.

This compulsory labor service for women was established with a twofold purpose: (1) To procure cheap help for the farms, and (2) to educate the young women in National-Socialist philosophy. The girls are housed, in groups of about 50 each, in camps in the country, from which they are sent to neighboring farms to aid the farmers' wives.

¹ Data are from report of Edward A. Dow, American consul general, Leipzig.

They are required to work 7 hours a day without pay, performing any household or farm work assigned them by the farmer. Since all requests for such labor cannot be filled, preference is given to families with small children or to those in which the farmer has been called to military service. A new profession—"female leaders of labor service"—has been developed through this service. Girls who have had training in some profession or in agricultural work are preferred, and those wishing to enter this new career must bind themselves for the duration of the war or for at least 3 years.

New Wartime Occupations for Women

Many wives or daughters of tradesmen—butchers, bakers, tailors, barbers, and hairdressers—have assumed charge of their husband's or father's business while the latter is away on military service. Since many wives and daughters were not trained for such work and had to take over the business on short notice, the Labor Front instituted trade-training courses giving rapid practical and theoretical instruction. The course for hairdressers lasts only 3 weeks, consisting of 4 hours' instruction on 5 evenings of each week, while the 2 remaining days are given to a course in bookkeeping and related subjects required in the various trades or business.

Other professions usually carried on by men but now in the hands of women are those of the postmen and local railway and streetcar conductors. The city of Halle, for instance, reported in November 1939 that one-third of its letter carriers were women ranging in age from 18 to 50 years. The Leipzig street railways are steadily seeking women between 21 and 40 years to be trained as conductors.

One unusual change of vocation reported was that of a mannequin who lost her position on account of the curtailment of textile fashion trades and became the driver of a farm tractor.

Welfare Measures

Many married women voluntarily work in factories to supplement the family income if the husband's wages are inadequate or if he has been called to military service. While the mothers are thus employed, their children are cared for in kindergartens. Nearly all enterprises employing large numbers of women have established their own kindergartens, managed and supervised by trained teachers. In addition to those privately initiated, the municipality, the National Socialist People's Welfare, and the women's section of the National Socialist Party have recently established numerous kindergartens or have enlarged existing ones. Many of these are subdivided for children according to age—from several months of age to those who attend school.

Because the German Government places emphasis upon the family as the smallest unit of the State, numerous courses in the care of babies, preparation of food in conformity with war restrictions, making dresses from old materials, etc., have been instituted recently to promote the professions of housewife and mother.

Every large plant must employ a welfare worker, whose duties are to give advice and help to the workers in matters of daily life, health, household questions, procuring necessary food supplies, obtaining unpaid help in the household work if the mother is ill or too weak to perform it herself, and provide necessities in childbirth if the mother is in needy circumstances. If the welfare worker is unable to help, she reports the case to the National-Socialist Women's Department which has greater means at its disposal.

This welfare work has proved itself particularly useful during recent war months. Before the war there were about 600 enterprises in Germany which had such employees. The total is steadily increasing because of the increased amount of women's work and the more difficult living conditions since the beginning of the war. The greater demand for such welfare services has reduced the time ordinarily required for training.

Voluntary welfare work.—In addition to these professional occupations, a large amount of voluntary work is performed. Many women and girls serve as volunteer Red Cross helpers. An appreciable number had trained for this work before the war, so that the League of German Girls, for example, immediately after the outbreak of the war was able to place 35,000 of its members at the disposition of the Red Cross.

Another vast field of voluntary work is that supervised and carried on by the National-Socialist People's Welfare. This unit and the winter relief work have instituted sewing circles where old clothing is cleaned, repaired, or altered and then given to the poor. Thus, many baby layettes have been made for destitute families. These sewing circles also help to complete outfits for Red Cross hospitals, etc.

When local authorities are notified the father or son of a family has fallen in battle, a volunteer worker takes charge of the survivors, assumes necessary commissions, collects data for the pension application, and assists in all physical and psychical ailments. Widows of World War veterans are usually selected as particularly suitable* for this task.

Another example of voluntary help is that of women who, having at least one large room in their homes, care for children of neighboring families during the day if the mother works outside of the home.

The National-Socialist Women's Department has also organized the so-called "neighbor's help," the members of which agree to do certain kinds of housework at certain hours per week. In case of emergency

(sickness, childbirth, etc.) one or several of these helpers are sent to do the work in this family, care for the children, nurse the sick person, prepare the food, and clean the dwelling. All this is done voluntarily and without compensation.



WORKTIME OF WOMEN AND YOUNG PERSONS IN BRITISH FACTORIES

EXEMPTIONS from the hours provisions of the British Factories Act of 1937, covering women and young persons, were permitted in 2,914 factories during the first 5 months of the present European war, according to a report of the Home Office.¹ At the end of that period, however, the number of factories authorized to extend the working time of women and young persons was smaller, owing to the expiration of some temporary orders permitting this practice.

By the terms of the factory legislation of 1937, which became effective on July 1, 1938, the statutory workweek was limited to 48 hours for women and for boys between the ages of 14 and 18 years. On July 1, 1939, a 44-hour maximum was substituted for boys and girls between 14 and 16 years of age, unless any industry was so dependent on the employment of such young persons and was so organized that the carrying on of the industry would be seriously prejudiced by the shorter workweek. Overtime was forbidden for minors under 16 years of age. For those over that age, and for women, a total of 100 hours' overtime could be required in a calendar year, limited to 6 hours per week and 25 weeks in a year.²

When war was declared in 1939 a substantial amount of overtime work was permitted to meet the immediate demand for goods. At the same time it was made clear to employers and workers that existing legislation must be enforced and that hours should be regulated under the regular machinery and according to a considered policy. Review of the situation in individual plants at short intervals was necessary in the early war period in order that overtime should not be worked to a greater extent or for longer periods than required.

At the beginning of the emergency the service departments were authorized to inform their contractors that they might allow their employees to work overtime, subject to a maximum 60-hour workweek, and make certain changes in starting and stopping time. However, the employers were required to apply at once for an order from the Home Secretary, formally approving the changes. This

¹ Great Britain. Home Office. Factories Act, 1937: Report on Hours of Employment of Women and young Persons in Factories During the First Five Months of the War. London, 1940. (Cmd. 6182.)

² See Monthly Labor Review, December 1937 (p. 1422).

procedure was not permitted for long and it is now necessary to proceed in the prescribed manner to obtain exemptions; that is, by applying to a factory inspector and the Home Office.

In addition to the exemptions from maximum hours, permissible under power conferred upon the Secretary of State by the provisions of the Factories Act, 1937, he is empowered to adjust working time under order No. 59 of the defense regulations, 1939. This regulation also provides for exemption (wholly or partly) of any factory or operations, if the secretary is satisfied that such exemption is in the public interest, by reason of conditions arising out of the war. However, few of the orders issued, at the time the report here reviewed was published, had been made under the 1939 regulations.

Exemptions

General.—The largest number of applications received for extended hours covered requests for permission to employ women and young persons for daily or weekly hours in excess of the permitted number. Such orders were made for 2,459 factories. The authorizations often permitted a shorter period of work than was applied for and in some cases applications were refused. As already noted, the maximum workweek was limited to 60 hours at the beginning of the war; but when formal orders were made later, the maximum was reduced to 57 hours, in almost every case, for women and young persons over 16 years of age. Many employers have since reorganized their plants in such a way as to make it possible to operate on the basis of 54 hours or less. In 239 cases, employers have not found it necessary to renew their applications for extension of hours.

Few applications have been made for work on Sundays except to take care of a particular job or to deal with an unforeseen emergency.

Two shifts.—Orders for 2 shifts a day of 8 hours each were granted to 299 factories. In this way it was possible to avoid employing individual women and young persons for a long day. The usual hours fixed were 6 a. m. to 2 p. m. for the first shift and 2 p. m. to 10 p. m. for the second. Workers alternate weekly or biweekly from the first to the second shift.

Night work.—Few applications were received to employ women over 18 at night. In all, 57 orders were made. The usual schedule is either to employ workers on three 8-hour shifts in 24 and to allow at least a half-hour for meals and rest in each shift; or to adopt a 2-shift plan, with employees on the day shift working 54 hours a week and those on the night shift working 50 hours. Under the latter system, at least 1 hour a day must be allowed each employee for meals and rest. It is also customary to provide for a short day of work on Saturday, plus 5 nights of work on the remaining weekdays.

Male young workers aged 16 and over.—Young workers (male) aged 16 and over are permitted to be employed on shifts, including a night shift, under existing law. This applies in industries and on processes where continuous operations are necessary, such as smelting iron ore. Young men so employed may work not to exceed 56 hours in any week, or 144 in a continuous period of 3 weeks. Modifications or extensions under this regulation have been permitted in 30 factories. Applications for night work for women or other young persons have been refused in 62 cases and no authorizations have been made for the employment of girls under 18 or of boys under 16.

Young workers under 16.—At the beginning of the war hundreds of applications were received to employ young persons under 16 for 48 hours instead of 44, and orders were issued allowing either a 47- or 48-hour week, for short periods (rarely longer than 2 months). Many employers took measures making it unnecessary to extend the orders on their expiration. Others met their needs by establishing 2 different groups of young persons, each on a 44-hour schedule, working at different times of the day between 7 a. m. and 6 p. m. However, refusal to permit weekly hours in excess of 44 would work hardship in certain industries, including shipbuilding and some classes of engineering. In all, 439 factories were permitted to employ young persons under 16 for hours in excess of 44 but not exceeding 48; 312 of these orders were not renewed; and in others renewal was refused. At the end of the 5 months under review 133 such orders were in operation.

Summary Figures

The total number of factories involved and the industries affected by orders for extended hours during the war period ending January 27, 1940, are as follows:

	Factories
Total involved.....	2, 914
Engineering.....	1, 506
Marine engineering and shipbuilding.....	77
Clothing.....	157
Wool textile.....	239
Cotton textile.....	67
Other textiles.....	269
Hosiery.....	60
Glass.....	12
Food and drink.....	72
Paper and cardboard.....	58
Surgical dressing and hospital equipment.....	31
Rubber.....	62
Respirators.....	18
Miscellaneous (including woodworking, leather, printing, brushes and brooms, etc.).....	286

Unemployed Youth

ACTIVITIES UNDER NYA WORK PROJECTS, 1938-39

UNDER the work-projects program of the National Youth Administration, part-time employment is provided for needy youth between 18 and 24 years of age, inclusive, who are not in school and are unemployed. The projects are planned to enable these young people to acquire sound experience and proper work habits. All projects are under the auspices of local public agencies and are so designed that when completed they will be definitely beneficial to the community in which they function.

A statement of the work done under these projects from July 1, 1938, to June 30, 1939, is given below.¹ It will be noted that a large part of the work consisted of the building of various types of structures.

Accomplishments on NYA Work Projects, Year Ending June 30, 1939

Activity	Work completed		Activity	Work completed	
	New construction	Repair or improvement		New construction	Repair or improvement
<i>Building construction</i>			<i>Building construction—Con.</i>		
Total buildings.....	3, 120	7, 728	Social and recreational structures.....number..	1, 650	2, 455
Administrative buildings.....number..	59	237	Auditoriums.....do.....	9	59
Warehouses.....do.....	37	17	Stadiums, grandstands, bleachers, etc.....number..	213	596
Garages.....do.....	108	38	Gymnasiums.....do.....	33	135
Hospitals.....do.....	3	49	Shower and dressing-room structures.....number..	174	403
Isolation buildings for tubercular, etc.....number..	14	81	Bandstands, bandshells, and outdoor theaters.....number..	85	81
Other charitable, medical, or mental buildings.....number..	45	85	Youth center buildings.....number..	118	184
Educational buildings.....do.....	708	4, 538	Other community buildings.....number..	183	411
Schools.....do.....	294	3, 930	Park and trailside shelters, etc.....number..	627	282
Dormitories.....do.....	105	150	Other.....do.....	208	304
Libraries.....do.....	9	87			
Museums and art galleries.....number..	13	24	Staff residence buildings at schools, institutions, etc.....number..	67	81
Other.....do.....	287	347			
Agricultural buildings.....do.....	287	132			

¹ National Youth Administration, Division of Information. NYA Physical Accomplishment. Washington, D. C., February 1940.

Accomplishments on NYA Work Projects, Year Ending June 30, 1939—Continued

Activity	Work completed		Activity	Work completed	
	New construction	Repair or improvement		New construction	Repair or improvement
<i>Building construction—Con.</i>			<i>Other construction, and conservation—Continued</i>		
Street markets and roadside stands.....number..	140	4	Horseshoe courts.....do.....	365	167
Aircraft hangars and airport buildings.....number..	2	11	Shuffleboard courts.....do.....	52	7
Bridges.....do.....	483	412	Volleyball courts.....do.....	35	12
Seaplane bases.....do.....	3	-----	Pistol and target ranges.....do.....	21	-----
Landing fields.....do.....	1	13	Outdoor fireplaces, council rings, permanent tent floors.....number..	1,549	-----
<i>Other construction, and conservation</i>			Trash and garbage burners.....number..	331	-----
Highways, roads and streets.....miles ¹	187	2,225	Storm and sanitary sewers.....miles.....	44	17
Sidewalks.....do.....	130	87	Construction of sanitary privies.....number..	1,364	-----
Bridle paths, bicycle paths, and hiking trails.....miles ¹	82	137	Cesspools, septic tanks, etc.....number..	214	171
Curbs, gutters, and guard rails.....miles ¹	228	145	Storage dams, including dams for artificial lakes and ponds.....number..	168	45
Culverts.....number.....	1,920	1,274	Storage tanks, reservoirs, cisterns.....number.....	159	93
Parking areas and overlooks.....square yards.....	250,007	274,939	Riverbank and stream-bed improvements.....miles.....	90	-----
Roadside landscaping.....miles.....	373	653	Levees and retaining walls.....miles.....	67	3
Landscaping of grounds.....acres.....	52,063	-----	Check dams.....number.....	6,000	188
Fencing.....miles.....	237	75	Soil-erosion control.....acres treated.....	136,554	-----
Erection of snow fence.....do.....	36	-----	Reforestation.....trees planted.....	1,838,244	-----
Street signs.....number.....	157,045	64,031	Plant and tree nurseries.....number.....	1,474	52
Airway markers.....do.....	418	90	Firebreaks and fire trails.....miles.....	278	165
Other signs and markers do.....	170,201	32,118	Fire observation structures.....number.....	11	690
Parks.....acres.....	28,883	41,672	Bird and game sanctuaries.....number.....	3,385	254
Fair and rodeo grounds.....do.....	557	509	Fish hatcheries.....do.....	44	59
Playgrounds, school.....number.....	715	4,671	Stocking, fish.....do.....	(?)	-----
Playgrounds, other.....do.....	421	716	Stocking, other game.....do.....	60,062	-----
Baseball and football fields.....number.....	649	715			
Athletic fields for track and field events.....number.....	250	446			
Swimming pools.....do.....	46	103			
Wading pools.....do.....	83	87			
Tennis courts.....do.....	761	1,165			
Basketball courts.....do.....	45	31			
Croquet courts.....do.....	63	-----			
Golf courses.....do.....	35	95			
Handball courts.....do.....	46	8			

Activity	Amount	Activity	Amount
<i>Nonconstruction</i>		<i>Nonconstruction—Continued</i>	
Clothing produced or renovated.....number of articles.....	1,628,765	Tools and mechanical equipment constructed or repaired.....number of articles.....	88,187
Shoes repaired.....number of pairs.....	18,055	Concrete articles, adobe brick, cinder block, etc., produced.....number.....	2,355,374
Household articles, bedding, etc., produced.....number of articles.....	539,186	Stone, sand, and gravel produced.....cubic yards.....	237,305
Hospital supplies produced.....number of articles.....	4,308,111	Lumber produced.....board feet.....	1,976,194
Toys made or renovated.....number.....	914,246	Firewood cut.....cords.....	90,833
Home furniture constructed or repaired.....number of articles.....	68,267	School lunches served.....number.....	18,907,633
School furniture constructed or repaired.....number of articles.....	552,296	Foodstuffs produced (resident projects only).....pounds.....	1,002,463
Office furniture and equipment constructed or repaired.....number of articles.....	93,586	Canning and preserving.....do.....	523,717
Recreational and playground equipment constructed or repaired.....number of articles.....	146,802	Construction and renovation of museum articles.....number.....	95,397
		Cataloging museum articles.....do.....	208,092
		Books renovated or repaired.....do.....	2,244,112
		Ceramic articles produced.....do.....	8,189

¹ All mileage figures rounded off to nearest whole number.² 3,533,000,000 fingerling and fry.

YOUTH IN 45 AGRICULTURAL VILLAGES

ALMOST 25 percent of the youth 20 to 29 years of age living in 45 agricultural American villages in 1936 had come to these small rural communities from the country or from larger towns and cities during the previous 5 years.¹ However, chiefly because of inadequate employment opportunities, even greater numbers of young persons had left these villages. These shifts between 1930 and 1936 resulted in a decline of 22 percent in the number of young persons in such villages.

The youth who continue to live in these agricultural villages or who migrate to them have significantly different characteristics from the young people in the United States as a whole, and according to findings of the survey here reviewed, are relatively favorably situated within the country's total group of young people. They do not seem to suffer severely from unemployment, although a large number of them were found to be underemployed and occupational opportunities are rather restricted. They have had relatively little aid from the various emergency agencies.

With a few exceptions, the villages included in the investigation are in average or better-than-average sections of the country. Cases of over 10,000 persons from 16 to 29 years of age were studied, and also the histories of 3,400 economically independent young people who had migrated from these villages.

Findings of Study

Among the principal findings of this investigation are the following:

Agricultural-village youth are very mobile. Almost half the young men and over a third of the unmarried young women who were not in school in 1936, had moved at least once since they were 16 years of age. These moves did not include residential changes within the villages. In the 25-to-29 age group, one out of five men and one out of six unmarried women had moved three times or more. The villages often served as way stations for farm youth en route to towns and cities.

While there were 87 young males to 100 young females in these villages, urban centers were attractive to a larger percentage of the young women than of the young men who deserted the villages. Marriage seems to be a notable cause of the migration of girls from villages, whether to the city or to other rural places. A greater proportion of young men in the villages were married than in the United States as a whole, while the percentage of young women married was about the same in the villages as in the total population.

¹ U. S. Work Projects Administration. America's "home town" loses its young people. (Press release March 31, 1940, based on report of that administration, on Youth in Agricultural Villages, by Bruce L. Melvin and Elna N. Smith, Washington, 1940.)

The young people in agricultural villages reach a relatively higher educational level than in the rural regions as a whole. Over 50 percent had completed high school. The boys in school outnumbered the girls. Vocational courses were followed only by a few and those who had such training were as a rule prepared for fields which were overcrowded.

More young men (37 percent) were employed as unskilled laborers than in any other category. More young women (35 percent) were employed as clerks and in similar work. This category was also important among the men. Unskilled women were employed chiefly as servants. Professional openings were relatively numerous, especially for women. The economically independent young people who had left home were better off occupationally than those who stayed, particularly with reference to the professions.

Of the young people in the 16-to-29 age group who were not in school, 90 percent of the young men, 66 percent of the unmarried young women, and 13 percent of the married women had some employment when they were interviewed. However, over half of the men and the unmarried women had had no income or had received an income of less than \$300 in the previous 12 months.

The young villagers owned little property besides their personal belongings. Furniture, automobiles, and savings were the items most commonly owned. One-fifth of the married men possessed only personal property. Over one-half of the men out of school and seven-tenths of the unmarried women who had property reported assets under \$300.

Social and recreational facilities varied largely from village to village. Youth in schools took a greater part in organizations than did those who had left school, and girls participated in these organizations more than boys. The most popular kinds of indoor recreation were reading and the radio. Slightly over half of the men and only about a third of the women who were no longer in school took part in outdoor sports, even during the summer.

The regions and villages included in the survey were:

Middle Atlantic: Altamont, Cattaraugus, Franklinville, and Sodus, New York; Centre Hall, McConnellsburg, Middleburg, Richland, and Wyalusing, Pennsylvania. *Southeast:* Berryville and Bowling Green, Virginia; Nashville and Pittsboro, North Carolina; St. Matthews, South Carolina; Poplarville, Mississippi. *Southwest:* Granger and Leonard, Texas; Nashville, Arkansas. *East North Central:* Fennimore and Mount Horeb, Wisconsin; Argos and Fowler, Indiana; Eureka, Milford, and West Salem, Illinois. *West North Central:* Blackduck, Elk River, and Wells, Minnesota; Alta, Grundy Center, and Winfield, Iowa; Hardin and Puxico, Missouri; Stromsburg and Weeping Water, Nebraska; Inman, Mount Hope, and Oxford, Kansas. *Western:* Akron and Delta, Colorado. *Pacific:* Corning and Exeter, California; Clatskanie and Cottage Grove, Oregon; Ridgefield, Washington.

Social Security

PLACEMENT WORK OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT SERVICES, MARCH 1940¹

NEARLY one-quarter of a million placements were made by public employment offices in the United States during March, a gain of approximately one-fifth over the number reported in February. Placements with private employers were 18 percent higher than the number reported in the same month of 1939 and represented the highest number of such placements made in any March in Employment Service records. Public placements, however, were considerably below the levels of previous years. On the basis of reports from all but 2 States, it appears that the active file declined sharply during the month.

Private placements made during March numbered 217,572, nearly one-fifth higher than the number reported in March 1939 and approximately 70 percent above the total of 1938. Placements in agriculture, which represented 13,016 of this total, showed a sharp increase over those of the previous month. Gains over February were only in small part accounted for by the greater number of working days in March. Improvement was widespread, 36 States showing increases over March 1939 volumes. Expansions of over 50 percent were reported in 10 States. More than one-half of the private placements were in jobs expected to last more than 1 month, there being 111,065 such placements. Placements in temporary jobs—those expected to last less than 1 month—numbered 106,507. The gain for regular jobs above the levels of March in previous years was higher than for jobs of temporary duration.

In addition to the placements with private employers, 25,748 openings in public and governmental work were filled. This represents a gain of more than one-third above the level reported in February but a sharp drop from totals reported in previous years, owing to the smaller volume of public-works projects in progress this year.

In addition to these placements, 30,277 supplemental placements were reported. These represent instances in which the employment offices were of material assistance in bringing worker and job together but in which not all of the steps of the placement process were han-

¹ Prepared by Research and Statistics Division, Bureau of Employment Security, Social Security Board.

dled through the public-employment-office facilities. More than one-half of these placements were in agricultural employment, Texas alone accounting for over 13,500 such placements in agriculture.

Approximately one and one-third million applications for jobs were received during March, with reports lacking for one State—a slight increase over comparable totals for February. The active file, representing the total number of persons seeking work through the employment offices at the end of the month, however, declined sharply. With reports missing from 2 States, the number of job seekers registered was 16.5 percent less than the comparable total of the previous month and nearly 30 percent below the level of a year earlier. The decrease from February was due largely to a special survey of the file to remove the registrations of persons not currently available for referral. Declines in active file were reported in 41 States.

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Placement Activities of Public Employment Services, March 1940*

Activity	Number	Percent of change from—		
		February 1940	March 1939	March 1938
Total complete placements.....	243,320	+19.7	-4.1	+37.3
Private.....	217,572	+18.1	+17.7	+68.8
Regular.....	111,065	+15.1	+19.5	+84.0
Temporary.....	106,507	+21.4	+15.8	+55.4
Public.....	25,748	+35.0	-62.6	-46.7
Supplemental placements.....	30,277	+22.2	-18.9	-----
Total applications ¹	1,329,938	+3.3	+8.4	-.7
Active file ²	4,391,988	-16.5	-29.0	-27.7

¹ Excludes Rhode Island

² Excludes Rhode Island and New York.

Placements of veterans in March showed similar trends. Altogether, 8,013 jobs were filled by veterans, of which 6,562 were with private employers. The increase in the number of applications received from veterans, however, was much larger than the general gain in applications, whereas the decline in the active file of veteran job seekers was smaller.

TABLE 2.—*Summary of Placement Activities for Veterans, March 1940*

Activity	Number	Percent of change from—		
		February 1940	March 1939	March 1938
Total complete placements.....	8,013	+18.5	-31.8	-19.8
Private.....	6,562	+23.2	-3.2	+14.3
Regular.....	2,645	+23.8	+5.3	+25.6
Temporary.....	3,917	+22.8	-8.2	+7.8
Public.....	1,451	+1.3	-70.8	-65.9
Total applications ¹	54,693	+15.0	-28.2	-56.4
Active file ²	210,009	-11.0	-39.2	-46.1

¹ Excludes Rhode Island.

² Excludes Rhode Island and New York.

TABLE 3.—Placement Activities for All Registrants, by Regions and States, March 1940

[Preliminary data reported by State agencies, corrected to April 13, 1940]

Region and State	Complete placements						Sup- ple- men- tal place- ments	Applications received			Active file, as of Mar. 31, 1940
	Total	Private				Pub- lic		Number	Percent of change from—		
		Num- ber	Percent of change from—		Regu- lar (over 1 month)				Febru- ary 1940	March 1939	
			Febru- ary 1940	March 1939							
Total.....	243,320	217,572	+18.1	+17.7	111,065	25,748	30,277	1,329,938	+3.3	+8.4	4,391,988
Region I:											
Connecticut.....	3,712	3,454	+8.9	+11.8	2,064	258	152	19,782	+8.2	+28.7	69,464
Maine.....	1,131	1,070	-7.5	-3.5	822	61	2	14,188	+63.3	+18.5	43,297
Massachusetts.....	2,843	2,624	-4.9	+11.0	1,896	219	10	43,285	+18.7	+44.6	157,970
New Hampshire.....	1,222	1,071	-20.3	-18.6	819	151	471	8,287	+55.9	+21.3	19,920
Rhode Island.....	610	548	+7.7	-18.0	367	62	37	(²)	-----	-----	(²)
Vermont.....	641	619	+5.5	+8	370	22	7	2,575	-2.4	-29.3	16,329
Region II:											
New York.....	21,142	19,872	+12.3	+62.7	9,441	1,270	627	139,103	-6.4	+51.4	(³)
Region III:											
Delaware.....	761	706	+9.0	-1.1	320	55	27	2,737	-28.0	+5	15,446
New Jersey.....	8,049	7,899	-8.5	+28.1	4,868	150	571	53,041	+6.8	-5.9	227,157
Pennsylvania.....	9,762	9,036	+7.4	+15.6	5,838	726	1,648	120,564	+17.0	+5.9	262,407
Region IV:											
Dist. of Columbia.....	3,203	2,917	+19.5	+8.3	1,446	286	7	9,530	-6.7	-1.5	40,100
Maryland.....	2,896	2,668	+19.4	+20.1	1,352	228	24	21,261	+9.7	+9	75,053
North Carolina.....	5,976	4,778	+13.3	-3.7	2,360	1,198	18	24,474	-14.9	-5.8	91,497
Virginia.....	3,665	2,996	+7.7	+9.5	1,777	669	60	18,620	-15.7	-21.9	46,116
West Virginia.....	2,316	2,097	+9.3	-13.1	1,097	219	290	20,327	-2.8	-18.1	63,342
Region V:											
Kentucky.....	2,118	2,026	+43.1	+57.5	879	92	123	20,450	-2.1	+4.2	89,775
Michigan.....	8,215	7,881	+18.2	+24.4	5,069	334	122	61,553	-12.8	+3.3	205,875
Ohio.....	12,290	12,024	+29.3	+39.3	6,505	266	327	80,896	+3.9	+11.4	273,813
Region VI:											
Illinois.....	11,725	11,536	+14.8	+6.4	5,705	189	566	61,458	+6.5	+82.9	165,617
Indiana.....	6,967	6,803	+22.2	-2.6	3,875	164	731	35,273	-1.6	-7	146,209
Wisconsin.....	5,219	4,604	+17.3	+2.7	2,810	615	417	28,883	-11.7	+12.2	127,202
Region VII:											
Alabama.....	3,787	3,188	+18.2	+28.7	2,160	599	218	22,730	+3.7	+32.9	111,572
Florida.....	2,799	2,126	-8.9	+370.4	1,302	673	15	15,039	-1.6	+12.9	49,001
Georgia.....	7,542	6,210	+13.6	+67.9	3,183	1,332	273	24,653	+5.0	-13.2	129,402
Mississippi.....	4,098	2,128	+20.0	+180.0	1,307	1,970	243	13,511	-5.6	-14.9	47,019
South Carolina.....	2,747	1,646	-7.5	+44.3	1,119	1,101	6	8,772	-10.5	-32.0	38,615
Tennessee.....	4,038	3,708	+23.2	+12.1	2,355	330	467	12,352	-1.4	-39.2	117,749
Region VIII:											
Iowa.....	4,577	4,068	+13.2	-24.2	1,878	509	376	18,780	+18.1	-9.6	83,334
Minnesota.....	3,451	3,320	+14.3	+4	1,876	131	157	22,561	-1.3	+23.0	147,051
Nebraska.....	1,940	1,229	+16.4	-7.1	687	711	26	10,572	+29.9	+5	40,951
North Dakota.....	1,197	1,179	+46.5	-8.7	615	18	22	5,275	+15.6	+9.5	29,834
South Dakota.....	855	756	+41.0	-24.8	337	99	16	4,934	+13.9	+31.3	28,662
Region IX:											
Arkansas.....	3,978	3,663	+138.5	+3	1,353	315	601	11,106	-14.5	+12.6	45,463
Kansas.....	3,280	2,759	+36.9	+81.4	1,068	521	164	18,966	-32.8	+13.3	62,377
Missouri.....	6,374	6,098	+24.7	+38.4	3,201	276	35	43,500	-9.7	+44.7	159,999
Oklahoma.....	4,480	3,682	+46.8	+35.6	1,114	798	214	29,744	+28.4	+37.7	88,462
Region X:											
Louisiana.....	3,807	3,427	+2.2	-39.6	2,210	380	170	20,722	+4.1	+12.5	69,536
New Mexico.....	999	633	-8.7	-9.6	358	366	186	4,610	+16.1	+3.4	34,526
Texas.....	28,418	25,513	+15.8	+6	7,484	2,905	15,055	49,517	+2.6	-3.5	240,420
Region XI:											
Arizona.....	3,297	3,008	+61.6	+199.6	2,053	289	2,734	12,239	+65.7	+80.2	24,003
Colorado.....	2,638	2,508	+38.3	+18.0	1,128	130	65	16,235	+11.2	-2.7	54,714
Idaho.....	1,672	1,598	+45.9	+39.2	856	74	45	6,893	+31.8	+29.1	13,035
Montana.....	1,011	788	+53.3	-1.7	534	223	157	6,931	+51.3	+44.7	29,624
Utah.....	672	489	+25.4	+17.3	247	183	113	7,384	-17.6	-33.0	22,605
Wyoming.....	500	337	+49.8	-1.7	170	163	0	3,968	+37.4	+27.1	10,192
Region XII:											
California.....	17,914	15,947	+23.2	+7.4	6,805	1,967	1,434	103,636	+9.4	-27.8	413,142
Nevada.....	1,134	1,019	+68.2	+38.6	524	115	105	2,943	+30.8	+15.1	5,953
Oregon.....	4,380	3,538	+61.1	+20.8	2,195	842	611	17,078	+33.0	+37.7	33,293
Washington.....	6,141	5,218	+41.5	+110.2	2,990	923	506	24,648	+31.7	+87.5	93,840
Territories:											
Alaska.....	367	115	+22.3	+91.7	40	252	17	1,025	+99.8	+45.8	2,774
Hawaii.....	764	445	+19.3	+135.4	236	319	0	1,327	+8.6	-21.7	8,251

¹ Excludes Rhode Island.² Excludes Rhode Island and New York.³ Data not reported.

TABLE 4.—*Placement Activities for Veterans, by Regions and States, March 1940*
 [Preliminary data reported by State agencies, corrected to April 13, 1940]

Region and State	Complete placements						Applications received			Active file as of Mar. 31, 1940
	Total	Private				Public	Number	Percent of change from—		
		Number	Percent of change from—		Regular (over 1 month)					
			February 1940 ¹	March 1939 ¹				February 1940 ¹	March 1939 ¹	
Total	8,013	6,562	+23.2	-3.2	2,645	1,451	54,693	+15.0	-28.2	210,000
Region I:										
Connecticut	104	88	-28.5	-15.4	58	16	907	+24.9	+53.5	3,678
Maine	40	40			25	0	658	+65.7	-38.4	2,086
Massachusetts	74	54	+5.9		47	20	1,470	+36.7	-25.2	5,270
New Hampshire	42	37			31	5	354	+45.1	-28.5	928
Rhode Island	21	13			9	8	(⁴)			(⁴)
Vermont	33	27			12	6	97	+15.5	-22.4	747
Region II:										
New York	443	368	+1.4	+83.1	123	75	2,356	-15.6	+38.8	(⁴)
Region III:										
Delaware	24	23			18	1	103	-35.2	-47.7	720
New Jersey	131	108	-24.5	-16.9	69	23	2,077	+26.4	+23.0	8,656
Pennsylvania	192	163	-24.2	+6	112	20	4,504	+15.3	-3.8	11,373
Region IV:										
Dist. of Columbia	101	76	+40.7	-15.6	24	25	453	+6.6	-13.5	2,196
Maryland	143	127	+54.9	+35.1	60	16	800	+11.4	-62.1	3,292
North Carolina	141	102	+36.0	-34.2	34	39	549	-13.7	-56.5	2,154
Virginia	107	76	+15.2	-34.5	37	31	586	+13.3	-63.3	1,380
West Virginia	49	44			26	5	940	+4.7	-57.2	3,447
Region V:										
Kentucky	59	56			24	3	766	-7.0	-53.6	3,600
Michigan	277	252	-1.6	+24.8	160	25	3,154	-5.2	-57.4	11,010
Ohio	382	361	+39.4	+39.4	194	21	3,080	-9.3	-36.8	12,444
Region VI:										
Illinois	300	268	+20.2	-17.0	115	32	3,274	+99.5	-13.7	6,751
Indiana	131	126	+28.6	-28.0	75	5	1,291	-5	-16.6	8,535
Wisconsin	145	92		-22.7	59	53	1,574	-3	+26.4	8,099
Region VII:										
Alabama	115	91	-24.2	-12.5	52	24	935	+37.9	-21.3	4,567
Florida	65	50	-23.1		30	15	672	+7.7	-24.9	2,521
Georgia	221	172	+17.8	+25.5	79	49	586	+4.3	-31.4	3,822
Mississippi	85	39			28	46	493	+31.1	-63.5	1,256
South Carolina	56	22			8	34	324	-1.2	-47.7	1,320
Tennessee	94	76	+10.1	-16.5	36	18	391	+16.0	-75.7	4,749
Region VIII:										
Iowa	278	226	+8.1	-36.3	54	52	1,170	+68.3	-25.4	5,467
Minnesota	136	125	+10.6	+22.5	47	11	1,040	+6.3	-2.7	10,430
Nebraska	87	38			11	49	649	+52.7	-56.5	2,074
North Dakota	25	25			15	0	135	0	-60.9	1,337
South Dakota	24	17			6	7	111	-35.1	-67.5	1,632
Region IX:										
Arkansas	127	110		-34.5	16	17	448	-31.6	-20.3	2,328
Kansas	112	84	+42.4	+13.5	16	28	968	-40.6	-20.5	3,847
Missouri	289	273	+82.0	+60.6	81	16	2,066	-13.2	-5.2	9,132
Oklahoma	195	156	+56.0	+6.8	25	39	1,497	+31.8	-19.3	5,704
Region X:										
Louisiana	71	64		-52.2	37	7	691	+32.9	-29.9	2,185
New Mexico	61	20			4	41	221	+16.3	-38.6	1,799
Texas	853	734	+3.7	-25.4	109	119	1,347	+3.1	-17.9	7,855
Region XI:										
Arizona	145	134	+91.4		101	11	798	+111.7	+56.8	1,469
Colorado	93	84		-6.7	36	9	727	+4.8	-36.5	2,964
Idaho	168	151	+128.8	+11.9	49	17	604	+125.4	+34.2	851
Montana	93	59			35	34	510	+96.2	+4.9	1,862
Utah	33	19			8	14	423	-5	-52.8	1,396
Wyoming	29	14			4	15	252	+55.6	+12.0	635
Region XII:										
California	962	802	+47.2	-10.8	188	160	5,898	+30.0	-39.0	24,634
Nevada	71	66	+15.8	+22.2	32	5	165	+28.9	-10.8	372
Oregon	282	208	+82.5	+10.1	117	74	1,126	+94.1	+7.5	2,014
Washington	248	189	+41.0	+30.3	104	59	1,345	+101.3	+118.0	4,813
Territories:										
Alaska	25	3			2	22	65		+22.6	296
Hawaii	31	10			3	21	43			402

¹ Where less than 50 veteran placements or applications were involved in either period, the percentage change was not computed.

² Excludes Rhode Island.

³ Excludes Rhode Island and New York.

⁴ Data not reported.

UNEMPLOYMENT-COMPENSATION OPERATIONS, MARCH 1940¹

CONTINUED claims received during March declined slightly from the February volume, extending the moderate downward movement from the high levels of January. Benefit payments, totaling \$47,100,000, represented the highest monthly disbursement since March 1939, when approximately \$49,000,000 was paid out.

Receipts of continued claims declined 2.7 percent to approximately 5,700,000. The decrease was attributable to a reduction of 11 percent in the volume of claims filed to meet waiting-period requirements of the State laws; such claims comprised over a fifth of all continued claims. Reductions were reported by 34 States, with the most pronounced declines in reports for Mississippi and Utah, where decreases of more than 20 percent were shown. Delaware, Oklahoma, Missouri, and Wisconsin showed declines of over 15 percent, and 5 other States reported reductions of over 10 percent from February totals. Continued claims received in New Hampshire more than doubled as a consequence of a large increase in the number of initial claims filed due to the beginning of the uniform benefit year in March. Contrary to the general trend, all States in New England, except Connecticut, showed increases. The only other increases notably greater than the gain attributable to the greater number of working days occurred in Ohio and North Carolina.

Approximately 4,600,000 weeks of unemployment were compensated by benefit payments during March, a volume only moderately above that of February. While expansions were reported for 37 States, in 15 of these States the increase is largely accounted for by the greater number of operating days in March. The most pronounced gain occurred in Oregon with an increase of 80 percent. The District of Columbia, North Dakota, Tennessee, Kentucky, Maine, and Mississippi, showed increases of over 20 percent; increases of over 10 percent occurred in 14 other States. Notable decreases occurred in Oklahoma, Utah, and Delaware. The major portion of weeks compensated were for total unemployment; weeks of partial and part-total unemployment numbered only 375,400. Approximately one-fifth of the partial and part-total weeks compensated were reported by Illinois.

Benefit payments increased to \$47,100,000, the highest total since March 1939. The major portion of the 6.3 percent gain over February may be explained by the increased length of the operating month. Increases in 22 States, however, were materially in excess of the general increase, with that of 75 percent for Oregon most outstanding. Payments in the District of Columbia, North Dakota, Tennessee, Mississippi, Ohio, and Kentucky were over 20 percent above those for

¹ Prepared by Research and Statistics Division, Bureau of Employment Security, Social Security Board.

February. Every State in New England reported increases; all but Connecticut showed gains of over 13 percent. Among the 18 agencies reporting declines in payments, the decrease of 20 percent in Oklahoma was greatest. Nearly \$44,500,000 of the benefit payments was for total unemployment.

Total benefit payments since inauguration of the unemployment insurance programs total \$957,500,000. Of this total 5 States (New York, Pennsylvania, Michigan, California, and Massachusetts) account for 56.6 percent.

Continued Unemployment Compensation Claims Received, Weeks Compensated, and Benefits Paid, by Regions and States, March 1940

[Preliminary data reported by State agencies, corrected to Apr. 13, 1940]

Social Security Board region and State	Continued claims			Weeks compensated			
	Number	Type		Number	Types of unemployment		
		Waiting period	Compens- able		Total	Partial and part- total com- bined ¹	Partial only ¹
Total.....	5,669,922	1,197,968	4,471,954	4,581,094	4,180,510	375,401	-----
Region I: *							
Connecticut.....	79,167	17,308	61,859	65,747	59,712	6,035	(²)
Maine.....	55,935	15,996	39,939	37,327	32,482	4,845	(²)
Massachusetts.....	247,111	48,608	198,503	225,358	225,358	(¹)	(¹)
New Hampshire.....	41,984	25,118	16,866	16,358	14,196	2,162	(²)
Rhode Island.....	95,679	36,389	59,290	59,290	48,416	10,874	(²)
Vermont.....	18,655	3,789	14,866	14,927	13,137	1,790	1,558
Region II:							
New York.....	628,122	95,536	532,586	542,565	542,565	(¹)	(¹)
Region III:							
Delaware.....	14,834	1,552	13,282	13,190	11,172	2,018	1,760
New Jersey.....	216,001	55,522	160,479	181,175	181,175	(¹)	(¹)
Pennsylvania.....	566,546	167,126	399,420	383,064	383,064	(¹)	(¹)
Region IV:							
District of Columbia.....	30,146	6,522	23,624	27,437	26,205	1,232	(²)
Maryland.....	82,906	15,332	67,574	62,668	54,817	7,851	7,332
North Carolina.....	106,131	22,496	83,635	78,633	72,427	6,206	5,505
Virginia.....	87,408	14,911	72,497	74,024	67,781	6,243	5,305
West Virginia.....	44,679	6,713	37,966	35,679	35,417	262	(²)
Region V:							
Kentucky.....	99,919	38,886	61,033	57,456	55,908	1,548	(²)
Michigan.....	204,729	29,871	174,858	179,444	168,319	11,125	(²)
Ohio.....	385,292	104,710	280,582	267,335	227,853	30,181	(²)
Region VI:							
Illinois.....	315,004	33,702	281,302	292,069	219,823	72,246	47,466
Indiana.....	117,925	19,506	98,419	98,200	81,383	16,817	(²)
Wisconsin.....	69,065	23,884	45,181	48,045	41,905	6,140	3,034
Region VII:							
Alabama.....	83,952	20,366	63,586	61,718	54,559	7,159	5,543
Florida.....	56,243	13,128	43,115	43,115	36,956	6,159	(²)
Georgia.....	71,458	17,649	53,809	53,687	49,364	4,323	3,437
Mississippi.....	46,482	6,301	40,181	46,913	45,494	1,419	(¹)
South Carolina.....	40,379	7,560	32,819	31,292	26,000	5,292	2,947
Tennessee.....	102,922	16,220	86,712	82,471	75,914	6,557	2,091
Region VIII:							
Iowa.....	81,111	17,340	63,771	61,434	54,673	6,761	1,210
Minnesota.....	154,448	17,059	137,389	136,075	128,047	8,028	(²)
Nebraska.....	32,919	3,693	29,226	28,014	25,871	2,143	1,133
North Dakota.....	11,046	1,133	9,913	9,924	9,211	713	62
South Dakota.....	7,977	1,952	6,025	5,932	5,309	623	(²)
Region IX:							
Arkansas.....	57,046	15,165	41,881	41,881	39,086	2,795	272
Kansas.....	42,824	11,250	31,574	32,266	27,879	4,387	2,994
Missouri.....	107,538	32,386	75,152	82,266	71,388	10,878	7,029
Oklahoma.....	51,974	10,785	41,189	39,818	32,543	7,275	1,266
Region X:							
Louisiana.....	80,592	16,825	72,767	76,695	71,516	5,179	(²)
New Mexico.....	16,211	2,293	13,918	13,613	11,859	1,754	1,388
Texas.....	170,621	80,880	89,741	118,498	101,802	16,696	(²)

See footnotes at end of table.

Continued Unemployment Compensation Claims Received, Weeks Compensated, and Benefits Paid, by Regions and States, March 1940—Continued

Social Security Board region and State	Continued claims			Weeks compensated			
	Number	Type		Number	Types of unemployment		
		Waiting period	Compens- able		Total	Partial and part- total com- bined	Partial only
Region XI:							
Arizona.....	15,797	4,362	11,435	11,344	10,539	805	714
Colorado.....	51,547	5,657	45,890	46,343	40,209	6,134	3,241
Idaho.....	32,707	3,947	28,760	32,790	30,933	1,857	(²)
Montana.....	50,896	4,369	46,527	45,295	45,295	(¹)	(¹)
Utah.....	16,472	1,643	14,829	15,616	13,513	2,103	649
Wyoming.....	19,164	2,645	16,519	17,011	14,090	2,921	2,113
Region XII:							
California.....	518,022	59,649	458,373	486,919	418,435	52,735	(³)
Nevada.....	12,189	971	11,218	11,468	10,855	613	63
Oregon.....	89,479	18,723	70,756	75,662	66,332	9,330	6,135
Washington.....	123,498	18,942	104,556	106,423	94,278	12,145	(³)
Territories:							
Alaska.....	3,918	555	3,363	3,442	2,981	328	(²)
Hawaii.....	4,242	1,043	3,199	3,178	2,464	714	658
Social Security Board region and State	Benefits paid				Month and year benefits first payable	Amount of benefits since first payable	
	Amount ¹	Types of unemployment					
		Total	Partial and part- total com- bined ¹	Partial only ¹			
Total.....	\$47,130,475	\$44,486,597	\$2,458,881			\$957,480,523	
Region I:							
Connecticut.....	664,368	627,185	35,723	(³)	January 1938.....	19,102,252	
Maine.....	251,646	225,184	25,762	(²)	do.....	8,272,084	
Massachusetts.....	2,267,841	2,267,841	(¹)	(¹)	do.....	52,837,679	
New Hampshire.....	149,986	137,978	12,008	(²)	do.....	4,721,822	
Rhode Island.....	565,405	518,312	47,093	(²)	do.....	16,694,776	
Vermont.....	134,365	126,454	7,886	\$6,135	do.....	1,728,175	
Region II:							
New York.....	6,516,936	6,516,936	(¹)	(¹)	do.....	188,240,330	
Region III:							
Delaware.....	108,388	97,926	10,400	8,708	January 1939.....	1,014,850	
New Jersey.....	1,701,772	1,701,772	(¹)	(¹)	do.....	19,318,990	
Pennsylvania.....	4,215,996	4,215,996	(¹)	(¹)	January 1938.....	138,400,168	
Region IV:							
District of Columbia.....	244,006	236,028	7,978	(²)	do.....	3,668,149	
Maryland.....	535,201	491,577	43,420	40,120	do.....	17,500,287	
North Carolina.....	362,525	342,560	19,715	16,860	do.....	13,566,619	
Virginia.....	529,517	500,377	29,002	23,826	do.....	11,532,091	
West Virginia.....	302,966	301,836	1,130	(²)	do.....	17,075,310	
Region V:							
Kentucky.....	440,010	428,701	8,606	(²)	January 1939.....	5,940,840	
Michigan.....	2,035,601	1,973,264	62,337	(²)	July 1938.....	82,798,638	
Ohio.....	2,640,000	2,430,586	156,545	(²)	January 1939.....	30,839,230	
Region VI:							
Illinois.....	3,399,685	2,860,235	534,147	314,035	July 1939.....	27,494,964	
Indiana.....	971,437	880,078	90,672	(¹)	April 1938.....	29,227,422	
Wisconsin.....	500,540	460,506	40,034	17,173	July 1936.....	16,616,722	
Region VII:							
Alabama.....	405,112	363,691	41,195	32,078	January 1938.....	13,533,307	
Florida.....	381,666	343,885	37,781	(²)	January 1939.....	4,617,531	
Georgia.....	335,378	318,640	16,738	13,124	do.....	4,196,161	
Mississippi.....	276,450	269,438	6,785	(¹)	April 1938.....	3,526,937	
South Carolina.....	197,646	172,581	24,962	13,442	July 1938.....	3,331,133	
Tennessee.....	601,516	572,257	29,259	8,101	January 1938.....	12,173,516	
Region VIII:							
Iowa.....	567,981	524,005	42,392	5,832	July 1938.....	9,408,747	
Minnesota.....	1,421,091	1,358,493	62,528	(²)	January 1938.....	19,175,855	
Nebraska.....	261,888	245,736	16,109	8,124	January 1939.....	2,013,516	
North Dakota.....	96,127	90,526	5,601	432	do.....	766,382	
South Dakota.....	42,478	38,526	3,873	(²)	do.....	520,304	

See footnotes at end of table.

Continued Unemployment Compensation Claims Received, Weeks Compensated, and Benefits Paid, by Regions and States, March 1940—Continued

Social Security Board region and State	Benefits paid				Month and year benefits first payable	Amount of benefits since first payable
	Amount	Types of unemployment				
		Total	Partial and part- total com- bined	Partial only		
Region IX:						
Arkansas	243,360	232,657	10,703	1,067	January 1949	2,449,847
Kansas	287,450	259,286	28,164	18,074	do	3,042,803
Missouri	706,941	651,504	55,403	37,795	do	7,432,040
Oklahoma	358,108	313,082	45,026	6,718	December 1938 ..	5,491,574
Region X:						
Louisiana	581,233	551,499	29,234	(²)	January 1938	11,503,315
New Mexico	118,748	105,401	13,347	10,372	December 1938 ..	1,563,939
Texas	892,083	807,692	84,034	(²)	January 1938	22,860,089
Region XI:						
Arizona	122,783	116,478	6,305	5,672	do	3,800,971
Colorado	465,306	422,169	42,727	19,681	January 1939	4,691,752
Idaho	378,587	363,062	15,510	(²)	September 1938 ..	3,451,787
Montana	500,234	500,234	(¹)	(¹)	July 1939	2,111,734
Utah	167,060	151,937	15,123	4,993	January 1938	4,698,194
Wyoming	212,658	188,664	23,994	15,604	January 1939	1,694,486
Region XII:						
California	6,544,333	5,948,189	480,660	(²)	January 1938	79,574,341
Nevada	148,546	142,820	5,726	543	January 1939	1,201,641
Oregon	895,917	821,034	74,364	46,930	January 1938	11,568,813
Washington	1,308,504	1,206,312	102,192	(²)	January 1939	9,617,777
Territories:						
Alaska	48,739	44,876	2,918	(²)	do	491,542
Hawaii	24,361	20,591	3,770	3,361	do	379,091

¹ Benefits for partial unemployment are not provided by State law in Massachusetts, Mississippi, Montana, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania. Of these, only Mississippi provides for payments of less than full weekly benefit amount for total unemployment, i. e., "part-total" unemployment.

² Includes supplemental payments, not classified by type of unemployment.

³ Data on payments for partial unemployment included with that for part-total unemployment.

⁴ Figures for March exclude 418 payments compensated amounting to \$11,175 arising from recalculation of weekly benefit amounts. This amount, however, is included in benefits since first payable. In addition, the figure for weeks compensated includes 9,301 weeks not classified by type of unemployment.

⁵ Includes 15,749 weeks compensated, not classified by type of unemployment.

⁶ Includes 133 weeks compensated, not classified by type of unemployment.

FAMILY ALLOWANCES IN HUNGARIAN AGRICULTURE

THE National Union of Agricultural Employers in the County of Fejér instituted the first family-allowance system applicable to agricultural workers in Hungary.¹ The members of the organization contribute 5 pengös² for each family of agricultural workers employed by them. At the close of the year the total contributions are divided among the families of workers in which there are children under 12 years of age. At the end of 1939 each large family received an allowance of from 70 to 80 pengös.

The employers' organization administers the fund on the basis of information collected from its own members.²

¹ Data are from International Labor Office, Industrial and Labor Information (Geneva), March 11, 1940.

² Average exchange rate of pengő in January 1939 = 19.63 cents.

INCREASED FAMILY ALLOWANCES IN ITALY

AMONG recent developments in the family-allowance movement in Italy are the increases in allowance rates for the dependent children of workers in industry, commerce, and agriculture, and the newly provided allowances for the wives and parents of these workers and also for the wives and parents of ship's officers and seamen.¹

On December 1, 1939, an announcement was made by the Italian Minister of Corporations that in view of the workers' needs and the favorable position of the family-allowance fund, the family-allowance rates would be raised for the children under 14 or 18 years of age, of wage earners and office employees, respectively, in industry and commerce, without increasing the contributions. Furthermore, under a collective agreement, effective January 1, 1940, between the confederations of employers and of workers in agriculture, the allowances for dependent children of permanent agricultural wage earners, specialized workers, contract workers, day laborers, share farmers, and nonmanual workers were increased approximately 15 percent.

The new rates, according to number of dependent children, are reported in table 1.

TABLE 1.—Recent Changes in Italian Family-Allowance Rates in Industry, Commerce, and Agriculture¹

[Average exchange rate of lira in January 1940=5.047 cents]

Number of dependent children	Unit of time	Allowance per child			
		Manual workers		Nonmanual workers	
		New rate	Old rate	New rate	Old rate
Industry:		<i>Lira</i>	<i>Lira</i>	<i>Lira</i>	<i>Lira</i>
1 child.....	Week...	4.20	3.60	6.60	4.80
2 or 3 children.....	do.....	6.00	4.80	8.70	6.50
4 or more children.....	do.....	7.80	6.00	10.50	7.20
Commerce:					
1 child.....	Month...	16.80	14.40	26.40	19.20
2 or 3 children.....	do.....	24.00	20.40	34.80	24.00
4 or more children.....	do.....	31.20	26.40	42.00	28.80
Agriculture: ²					
1 child.....	Week...	2.70	-----	5.60	-----
2 or 3 children.....	do.....	4.20	-----	8.70	-----
4 or more children.....	do.....	5.40	-----	10.50	-----

¹ New rates in commerce and industry effective early in December 1939; in agriculture, effective Jan. 1, 1940.

² The increases in allowance for children in agricultural families approximated 15 percent.

On November 8, 1939, the Fascist Confederation of Industrialists and the Fascist Confederation of Industrial Workers signed an agreement, effective the following month, which extended the right to

¹ Italy. Istituto nazionale fascista della previdenza sociale. Les assurances sociales. Supplément de la revue "Le assicurazioni sociali." Rome, November-December, 1939, pp. 816-817, and British Ministry of Labor Gazette, London, January (p. 15) and February (p. 48) 1940.

family allowances to the wife and parents dependent upon the working head of the family. Consequently, in addition to working or employee family heads having dependent children under 14 or 18 years of age, respectively, married couples with no children or no dependent children are now eligible for allowances. Moreover, unmarried workers with dependent parents also benefit under this agreement.

The new contribution, including the 4.5 percent paid under the royal decree-law of June 17, 1937² is fixed at 8 percent of the pay received. This entire assessment is paid by the employer.

The two industrial confederations, after an examination of present employment conditions with a view to increasing production and according workers the benefits resulting therefrom, have approved the declarations and measures relating to the suspension of the restrictions provided in collective work contracts concerning the maximum hours of labor permitted under the law on working hours and payment for overtime.

A syndical agreement of December 25, 1939, effective January 1, 1940, signed by the two Fascist confederations of commerce, regulates certain aspects of labor relations involving the commercial classes. In this agreement family allowances are extended to include the dependent wife and parents of the family head, and the contribution of 1 percent in connection with the allowance, which was previously paid by the worker, is to be met by the employer.

Under the agricultural agreement effective January 1, 1940, increasing the allowances for children, grants were also provided for the worker's wife and his parents if they are living with him. The expenses resulting from the higher allowances for children and the new allowances for wives and parents under this agreement will be offset by raising the total contribution from 0.50 lira to 1.50 lire for each day's work of manual laborers and from 4½ to 8 percent of the gross compensation of nonmanual workers. This assessment will be paid entirely by the employers, including the contribution for which the workers are legally responsible.

According to an interconfederal agreement, effective December 1, 1939, ship's officers and seamen will receive allowances for wives and dependent parents in addition to allowances already provided by law for children. The extended allowances are to be paid by the employers, who have also assumed the responsibility of paying the men's share of the cost of the ordinary family allowances.

The allowance rates for wives and parents under several of these new agreements are given in table 2.

² See *Monthly Labor Review* for January 1938 (pp. 184-185) and May 1939 (pp. 1036-1037).

TABLE 2.—*Allowances for Wives and Parents, Fixed by Interconfederal Agreements, in Industry, Agriculture, and Sea Service, December 1939*

[Average exchange rate of lira December 1939=5.045 cents]

Class of dependent	Condition for eligibility	Pay period	Allowance rates for—	
			Manual workers	Nonmanual workers
Industry:			<i>Lire</i>	<i>Lire</i>
Wife.....		Week.....	7. 20	10. 20
Father.....	Over 60 years of age, or permanently disabled.....	do.....	4. 20	6. 60
Mother.....	Over 55 years of age, or permanently disabled.....	do.....	4. 20	6. 60
Agriculture: ¹				
Wife.....		do.....	6. 60	10. 20
Father ²	At least 60 years of age, or permanently disabled for regular work; living with worker.	do.....	3. 60	6. 60
Mother.....	At least 55 years of age, or permanently disabled for regular work; living with worker.	do.....	3. 60	6. 60
			Petty officers and seamen	Officers
Sea service:			<i>Lire</i>	<i>Lire</i>
Wife.....		Month.....	31. 20	44. 20
Father.....		do.....	18. 20	28. 60
Mother.....		do.....	18. 20	28. 60

¹ The allowances will date from Jan. 1, 1940, but will not be paid until July 1, 1940.² No allowance is granted to a father if he is already being paid an allowance for his wife.

The confederations of credit and insurance enterprises have also increased and extended family allowances under a special national collective agreement, effective January 1, 1940. The contributions are now paid entirely by the employing establishments. Formerly the workers also were assessed in connection with these grants.

The credit, insurance, and taxation services under Government contract are divided into 14 groups, each having a different allowance rate. For example, the monthly family allowances for officials and employees of banks of national importance have been raised from 55 to 100 lire for a wife; from 40 to 65 lire for each parent; from 50 to 85 lire for one child; from 55 to 100 lire per child in families with 2 or 3 children; and from 60 to 125 lire per child in families with 4 or more children. For the lower-paid members on the staffs of these banks the following changes are reported with reference to minimum monthly family allowances: For a wife, from no allowance to 45 lire; for each parent, from no allowance to 30 lire; for one child, from 25 to 30 lire; for each child when there are 2 or 3 dependent children, from 27 to 35 lire; and in families with 4 or more children, from 29 to 45 lire.

Housing Conditions

STATUS OF PUBLIC HOUSING IN NEW YORK

UNDER legislation adopted in 1939, the State of New York assures support to public housing by providing for financial aid to cities, towns, and villages, or their housing authorities, for the construction of low-rent housing projects for families of low income and for the clearance of substandard areas.¹ Low-cost housing was encouraged by earlier laws—namely, the limited-dividend housing law of 1926, and the 1934 legislation authorizing municipalities to establish housing authorities in order to avail themselves of Federal housing subsidies—but the latest enactment is of major importance in the effort to provide housing of accepted modern standards for families now living under adverse conditions. The sum of \$150,000,000 is being made available (from the sale of housing bonds) for housing loans. In addition, annual contributions by the State are authorized as a subsidy to insure the low-rent character of the housing projects erected, provided the municipalities also grant subsidies.

Division of Housing

Owing to the extension of the State's housing activities it was necessary to reorganize the division of housing. Formerly, a board of five nonsalaried officers dealt with housing matters. This board has now been replaced by a State superintendent of housing who is in charge of the division of housing. He is responsible for passing on applications for loans and annual grants. The 1939 law prescribes the conditions, such as to need and fitness, to be met before aid may be given. The superintendent must also approve the income groups to be served in public projects and the rents to be fixed. In this connection the law states that only low-income families may be housed in the dwellings erected. Occupancy is limited to families whose incomes do not exceed five times the annual rental to be charged.

¹ New York. State Superintendent of Housing. Report to the Governor and the Legislature. Albany, 1940. (Legislative Document, 1940, No. 70.)

Need for Housing

The 1939 report of the former State board of housing indicated that 1,031,000 dwelling units were required in New York State to relieve the existing shortage. It showed that "in many communities the vacancy ratio had fallen below the danger line of 3 percent, although this condition varied both within communities and as between locality and locality." According to later investigations made by the division of housing, there has been no substantial change in the need for housing, particularly for low-income families. For example, although about 17,000 dwelling units have been supplied in all communities of the State, under the Federal housing program, this total falls short of meeting the need for dwellings to house even new families.

The following estimates of housing needs of nonfarm families, in cities of 10,000 and more population, are as of the year 1939.

	<i>Percent of families in immediate need of housing</i>
Total cities of 10,000 population and over.....	28.1
New York City.....	34.1
Up-State:	
6 cities of 100,000 population and over.....	14.3
6 cities of 50,000 to 100,000 population.....	14.7
10 cities of 25,000 to 50,000 population.....	10.3
45 cities of 10,000 to 25,000 population.....	15.6

It is also stated in the report here reviewed that additional data on number of dwellings, vacancies, and physical condition of units are urgently needed, as well as information on incomes of families now occupying substandard housing.

Low-Cost Housing Projects

Application under 1939 law.—The first application for a loan under the 1939 law was filed before the close of the year. This loan, for over \$20,000,000, is to provide for the construction of a group of buildings in the Navy Yard district of New York City, one of the worst slum areas. The apartments will range up to six rooms in size, with the maximum of light, air, and privacy, and will be provided with complete bathrooms and kitchens. Laundry facilities and storage space will be available for the use of tenants, at convenient locations within the project.

Under the law, the city of New York will collect taxes on the new project in a sum at least equal to the amount that was assessed upon the land and buildings which formerly occupied the site. As taxes are delinquent on some of the property, the amount of cash tax revenue collected by the city will probably increase.

Work of local bodies.—Local housing authorities have direct responsibility for initiating, planning, constructing, and operating public projects. The public projects completed, in course of construction, and approved, at the end of 1939, will provide new homes for about 17,000 families, or approximately 65,000 persons.

Limited-dividend housing.—The original limited-dividend housing law was intended to encourage construction of dwellings for families that can afford to pay from \$9 to \$12.50 per room per month, which it appears is substantially below the level at which private enterprise can construct dwellings at this time. No limited-dividend housing has been constructed under the New York law since 1934. The report under review ascribes this to the failure of New York City to extend tax benefits for such projects; and (perhaps even more important) to the failure of such projects to attract the capital investment required above the mortgage requirements.

Labor Laws and Court Decisions

COURT DECISIONS OF INTEREST TO LABOR

Enforcement of Orders of National Labor Relations Board

IN A unanimous decision, the United States Supreme Court recently held that only the National Labor Relations Board—and not a labor union—is authorized by the National Labor Relations Act to institute proceedings to enforce orders of the Board. The Court ruled that the Amalgamated Utility Workers could not bring suit in the Circuit Court of Appeals to have the Consolidated Edison Co. held in contempt for failure to comply with certain requirements of the decree of that court enforcing an order of the National Labor Relations Board.

The union had contended that the National Labor Relations Act created certain “private rights,” that it recognized the rights of labor organizations, and that it gave to the interested parties a status in the courts for the vindication of such rights. This contention was rejected, for the court pointed out that those rights were fundamental and could not be said to have been created by the Labor Relations Act. Further, it was pointed out that the prevention of the exercise of these rights “was a proper subject for condemnation” by legislative authority, and that Congress had sought to make collective action an instrument of peace and not one of industrial strife.

In holding that the Board therefore had “exclusive authority” to institute proceedings for the enforcement of its orders, Mr. Chief Justice Hughes, who delivered the opinion of the Court, declared that the provision of the act conferring exclusive power upon the Board to prevent any unfair labor practice “necessarily embraces exclusive authority to institute proceedings for the violation of the court’s decree directing enforcement.”

The Supreme Court ruled that “the position of the Board as the enforcing authority” is thereby confirmed by the decree. “It is the Board’s order on behalf of the public that the Court enforces. It is the Board’s right to make that order that the Court sustains.” The order and the decree are both directed at the prevention of unfair labor practices. Hence the Court said that “if the decree of enforcement is disobeyed, the unfair labor practice is still not prevented. The Board still remains as the sole authority to secure that preven-

tion." Finally, the Court said that "the appropriate procedure to that end is to ask the court to punish the violation of its decree as a contempt. As the court has no jurisdiction to enforce the order at the suit of any private person or group of persons, we think it is clear that the court cannot entertain a petition for violation of its decree of enforcement save as the Board presents it." (*Amalgamated Utility Workers v. Consolidated Edison Co. of New York*, 60 Sup. Ct. 561.)

Restrictions on Individual Employment Contracts

In another important decision involving the National Labor Relations Act, the Supreme Court ruled that individual employment contracts which restrict the rights of collective bargaining may be held invalid by the Board. The National Licorice Co. had entered into contracts with its employees through a collective-bargaining committee which the Board found to be company-dominated. By the contracts the employees agreed not "to demand a closed shop or a signed agreement by the employer with any union." The order of the Board directed the company to post notices announcing that the contracts were "void and of no effect"; however, the Court later modified this order to have it state that the contracts violated the National Labor Relations Act, but that individual employees were free to assert "any legal rights they may have acquired under such contracts."

The Supreme Court based its decision on the ground that the provisions of each contract prevented the employee from bargaining for a closed shop or a signed agreement with the employer, and that the agreement was in plain conflict with the public policy of the act to encourage the procedure of collective bargaining, "since it discriminates against labor organizations by forbidding signed contracts with labor unions while it permits them with the individual workers." The Court, speaking through Mr. Justice Stone, also declared that the contract prevented collective bargaining with respect to the discharge of employees, by providing that the "question as to the propriety of an employee's discharge is in no event to be one for arbitration or mediation."

Finally, the Court ruled that since the contracts "were the fruits of unfair labor practices, stipulated for the renunciation by the employees of rights guaranteed by the act, and were a continuing means of thwarting the policy of the act, they were appropriate subjects for the affirmative remedial action of the Board authorized by Section 10 of the act." The fact that the employees were not parties to the proceeding before the Board was held not to affect the power of the Board to make an order forbidding the employer from making use of the contracts "as the means of defeating the policy and purposes of the act." Mr. Justices Black and Douglas were of the opinion, however,

that no decision should be made on the question of rights under the individual contracts until such question has been raised by someone entitled to raise the issue. (*National Licorice Co. v. National Labor Relations Board*, 60 Sup. Ct. 569.)

"Posting Notice" Under Workmen's Compensation Act

The Supreme Court of Appeals of Virginia has ruled that where an employer of strawberry pickers has failed sufficiently to post a notice of his compliance with the workmen's compensation act, the pickers could not be held to have elected voluntarily to be bound by the act. The Virginia act provides that certain classes of employers (including farmers) and their employees are excluded from the act unless such employers and their employees "voluntarily elect to be bound by the act." The Industrial Commission had adopted rules requiring every employer to post notices of compliance in a place conspicuous to the employees. The rules also provided that an employee is subject to the act unless he rejects it by notice to the Industrial Commission.

In this case two berry pickers were killed, admittedly in an accident that arose out of and in the course of the employment. It was admitted that the employer had carried a policy of workmen's compensation for a long time. In determining this case, the Industrial Commission refused to admit the employer's liability on the ground that he had not given the deceased employees either "actual or constructive notice" of his intention to be bound by the act. The employees therefore could not be held to have voluntarily elected to be bound by its provisions. The court agreed with the ruling of the Industrial Commission, holding that there was not sufficient notice to the employees of active compliance with the act and hence the commission lacked jurisdiction to determine the employer's liability. (*Dey v. Logan*, 7 S. E. (2d) 102.)

Death in Hotel Fire Held Compensable

The Georgia Court of Appeals has held that the death of a traveling investigator in a hotel fire was compensable under the State workmen's compensation act. The employee was hired by the Railway Express Agency and required to travel from place to place for the purpose of investigating the loss, etc., of express shipments. While traveling, the employee was expected to ride in express cars and on trucks of the employer. He had no definite hours within which to do his work, and frequently he was obliged to spend the night at hotels away from his home. While in Nashville, Tenn., he was instructed to go to Atlanta, Ga. Upon arriving in Atlanta, the employee went to a hotel which was destroyed by fire early on the morning of May 16, 1938. He was killed, and an award of compensation was made to his widow.

In holding that compensation was properly granted, the court declared that an employee who is required to travel is protected by the provisions of the workmen's compensation law from exposure to the perils of the highway and the hazards of hotels which occur in the normal, usual, and accustomed manner, and which are incident to his employment. It was also pointed out that the employee was not required to travel at night on a train, instead of stopping at a hotel. "Such being the case," the court concluded, "his spending the night at the hotel was a necessary and normal incident of his employment" and therefore compensation had been properly awarded. (*Railway Express Agency, Inc. v. Shuttleworth*, 7 S. E. (2d) 195.)

State Law Applicable to Employees Injured on Federal Building Upheld

The United States Supreme Court has upheld a New York State labor law that protects workers engaged in the construction of buildings or demolition work. The law in question required the planking of beams in structural iron or steel work.

While engaged in the construction of a Federal post-office building, an employee of a rigging company, a subcontractor, fell from an unplanked tier of steel beams and was killed. The State courts in New York awarded damages for the death of the workman.

An appeal to the United States Supreme Court involved the question of whether a State statute remained effective as a Federal law applicable to the particular property, after the United States Government had acquired exclusive jurisdiction of the land on which the work was being prosecuted.

The Supreme Court agreed with the State court's assumption that Federal sovereignty in this case was complete through consent by the State. The question, however, arose as to whether the acceptance of sovereignty by the United States had the effect of displacing the building regulation of the New York labor law. The high Court thought it did not, and that the particular law continued as a part of the laws of the Federal territory.

The Court further pointed out that it is settled now that the jurisdiction acquired from a State by the United States, by whatever means, "may be qualified in accordance with agreements reached by the respective governments." The Court also commented that "the Constitution does not command that every vestige of the laws of the former sovereignty must vanish." The language of the Constitution, the Court said, has been interpreted "so as to permit the continuance until abrogated of those rules existing at the time of the surrender of

sovereignty which govern the rights of the occupants of the territory transferred," and further that "this assures that no area however small will be left without a developed legal system for private rights."

The Court, however, was emphatic in the pronouncement that the authority of a State must not interfere with the carrying out of a National purpose, and that "where enforcement of the State law would handicap efforts to carry out the plans of the United States, the State enactment must, of course, give way."

The safety regulation as contained in the New York labor law therefore is effective in the Federal area, the Court concluded, "until such time as the Congress may otherwise provide." The decision of the State court awarding damages on account of the injury was therefore affirmed. (*James Stewart & Co. v. Sadrakula*, 60 Sup. Ct. 431.)

New Jersey Hours-of-Labor Law for Women Upheld

The Supreme Court of New Jersey has enforced a penalty against an employer found guilty of violating the State hours-of-labor law for women.

In this case the commissioner of labor charged that an employer had employed a female worker more than 6 days, in violation of a law providing that "no female shall be employed or permitted to work in any manufacturing or mercantile establishment, bakery, laundry, or restaurant more than 10 hours in any 1 day or more than 6 days or 54 hours in any 1 week."

In the court of common pleas of Ocean County the charge was dismissed, presumably on the ground that the law did not prohibit 7 days' work, provided the employment was not more than 54 hours in any 1 week. The commissioner of labor contended, and the supreme court upheld him in the view, that the law prohibited the employment of female labor more than 10 hours in any 1 day. The court in this regard said "public policy requires that there should be control over the hours of work in certain occupations." The court also observed that "the public interest is not served by the physical injury resulting from labor too long continued." In making reference to the statutory prohibition of working more than 6 days in any 1 week, the court pointed out that "this has been regarded as good practice for men as well as women from the earliest time." And finally, as to the last provision which forbids more than 54 hours of weekly labor, the court said that the violation of this provision like the others constituted a separate offense. There was therefore no doubt in the minds of the supreme court, since the words used by the legislature were clear and unambiguous, and hence the lower court was overruled. (*Toohey v. Abromowitz Department Store*, 11 Atl. (2d) 297.)

Education and Training

UNITED STATES PRISON SCHOOLS

THE Bureau of Prisons in the United States Department of Justice operates what is said to be the "largest unified correctional plan in the world." Approximately 18,000 prisoners are in the following penal institutions of the Federal Government: The 6 penitentiaries located at Alcatraz Island, Calif., Atlanta, Ga., Leavenworth, and Fort Leavenworth, Kans., Lewisburg, Pa., and McNeil Island, Wash.; the Federal Industrial Institution for Women at Alderson, W. Va.; the 2 industrial reformatories at Chillicothe, Ohio, and El Reno, Okla.; the medical center and hospital for defective delinquents at Springfield, Mo.; detention headquarters at New York City; the 6 Federal correctional institutions at New Orleans, La., Milan, Mich., Tallahassee, Fla., Terminal Island, San Pedro, Calif., Sandstone, Minn., and La Tuna, Tex.; the Reformatory Camp at Petersburg, Va.; and the special camps (which help in gradually accustoming prisoners to a life of liberty), at Dupont, Wash., Montgomery, Ala., Tucson, Ariz., and Kooskia, Idaho.

As pointed out in a recent article published by the United States Office of Education,¹ "to turn the criminal loose on society after punishment, without any effort to better him before he again attempts to gain a living by honorable means, is in many cases the cause of making him more antisocial and possibly more criminal." An educational and training program has therefore been established by the Bureau of Prisons which is designed to meet individual requirements and, with proper discipline, to aid in restoring the prisoner to more harmonious relations with society.

Selection of Prisoners for Education

A new Federal prisoner must go through a period in which he is interviewed and examined by a number of officers—the record clerk, associate warden, warden's assistants, or institutional case workers, chief medical officer, psychiatrist, psychologist, the educational

¹ U. S. Office of Education. *School Life* (Washington) March 1940, pp. 172-173; *Schools Under the Federal Government*: The Department of Justice, by Walton C. John.

supervisor, chaplain, recreation officer, and parole officer. Each of these members of the staff studies the prisoner and recommends corrective and remedial measures.

The classification committee composed of the above-mentioned staff members, presided over by the superintendent or warden, considers the data on the case and the recommendations of the different specialists and formulates a definite program with reference to the custody, discipline, social service, education, employment, recreation, religious training, medical and surgical treatment, psychiatric and psychological attention, and (when necessary) transfer to another institution.

Principal Educational Activities

The units which constitute the basis of the educational program for Federal prisoners are given below:²

(1) Elementary courses for illiterates and border-line illiterates, including individuals below the fourth- or fifth-grade level on standardized tests for achievement but who are able to assimilate such education.

(2) Higher academic education for those inmates who are above the preceding group on standardized tests for achievement and who wish to make up deficiencies in their elementary schooling. An effort is made to organize test and instructional material from the fields of English, civics, and social and industrial problems, and similar fields on the adult level.

(3) Allied trades and occupational classes for selected industrial workers and for all vocational trainees. In vocational education the main emphasis is on the utilization of the regular operation and industrial activities of the institution for training "on the job." Those prisoners who are able to assimilate trade training and develop superior industrial or trade skills are designated as vocational trainees by the prison classification committee and are obliged to follow a plan of related school work.

(4) Fairly advanced special classes in languages, mathematics, commercial subjects, mechanical drawing, lettering, and various other subjects have been organized to meet the practical and cultural interests of selected higher-grade prisoners.

(5) Correspondence and cell courses of study for those inmates who are unable to attend classes or whose interests and requirements cannot be met in the units outlined above. With a small number of exceptions, all cell courses of study are planned by the educational department and administered very much in accordance with the methods of standard correspondence schools. These cell study and

² U. S. Department of Justice. Bureau of Prisons. Education in the Federal Prisons, by Benjamin Frank. Washington, 1938.

correspondence courses are both vocational and academic. Among the typical subjects taught are correct English, arithmetic for adults, modern business arithmetic, laundry practice, household refrigeration, Diesel engines, and agriculture.

These principal educational activities are not equally emphasized, however, in all Federal prisons.

The United States Industrial Reformatory, Chillicothe, Ohio, has a school which is regarded as having the "widest and most complete development" in Federal reformatory schools. The school proper is located in a two-story building with classrooms, special rooms for instruction through visual aids, a well-equipped library, a science laboratory, a day and evening school for academic and vocational subjects, music instruction, a well-organized recreational program, and a very successful inmate council.

The educational program of the United States Northeastern Penitentiary is also notable. The academic courses cover the various levels on through the grades of the secondary schools. A nearby university provides instruction for special groups of adult males. Classes are available five evenings a week. Credits equivalent to 3 years' high-school work may be accumulated under an arrangement with the Pennsylvania Department of Education.

In other prisons it has been found advisable to pay more attention to the lower levels of elementary education, because so many of the inmates are illiterate. Cell courses for persons who are not permitted to attend the regular classes are stressed.

The educational work conducted by the Federal penitentiary at Atlanta, Ga., is highly significant and interesting. The staff of this prison includes an educational supervisor, two assistant supervisors, an industrial and vocational counselor, a librarian, and two chaplains.

More than a thousand men are enrolled in the more formal classroom type of work in elementary education for adult illiterates; classes in commercial work; related trades and occupational groups; art classes of various kinds; special subjects at secondary-school levels; a journalism class which publishes a monthly publication; supplementary visual education. In addition, classes and forums in religious education are conducted by the chaplains; educational radio broadcasts are conducted at regular periods during the week on the institutional radio system, a part of which is tied in with the well-known weekly program of the Town Hall of the Air, the records being obtained from the local radio station, used at suitable hours in the institution, and followed by an open forum conducted by the inmate group on the same topic.

Enrollments

About 7,200 inmates in the several penal institutions of the United States Government were participating in educational work in 1938-39. Of these prisoners, 4,300 were in the regular elementary classes or

other special courses; more than 1,200 men were receiving vocational training; and over 1,700 were registered for cell study and correspondence courses.

Libraries

The Federal prison libraries play an important part in the educational activities of the penitentiaries. Full-time librarians attached to the educational staff direct the large institutional libraries. "The total number of volumes in the 19 libraries approximates today over 136,000. The accessions of books for the past year reached 10,452 volumes. The largest collection is found at the Atlanta Penitentiary, with more than 18,000 volumes."

In the year referred to, 728,621 books were circulated; also approximately 170,000 single issues of magazines. In 1938-39 more than one-third of the books loaned were in the nonfiction class. In institutions in which there were full-time librarians the average was over 40 percent. In most prisons the inmates are permitted to go to the libraries and select their books. The Lewisburg Penitentiary library is open for readers in the evenings and is taxed for seating room. Under a carefully worked out schedule of the Atlanta Penitentiary, prisoners are allowed to go to the library to select their own books, to browse in the stacks, or to read magazines and newspapers. Other large institutions use "bookmobiles" for the distribution of library literature.

Labor Organizations

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS IN CANADA, 1938

MEMBERS of trade-unions in Canada at the close of the calendar year 1938 totaled 385,039—an increase of 420 over 1937. The number of trade-union locals in 1938 was 3,318—an increase of 60 as compared with the preceding year.

Based upon returns from trade-unions and upon other reliable data, the international-union group (i. e., unions covering both Canada and the United States) included in 1938 the Canadian members of 98 organizations, 2 more than recorded for the previous year. The total membership of this group was 230,547.

The group of Canadian central organizations, which numbered 30, 1 less than in 1937, had 878 branches, a gain of 23, with a combined membership of 91,764, a decrease of 6,869.

The National Catholic group consisted of 292 syndicates and study circles, an increase of 7. The membership of the Confederation of Catholic Workers of Canada, as reported by the general secretary, was 49,401, comprised in 258 local syndicates. There were 34 National Catholic syndicates not connected with the confederation, 5 of which reported a combined membership of 787.

The independent units numbered 62, a decrease of 10, the membership reported by 58 units being 12,540, a loss of 3,981 as compared with the 16,521 reported by 67 units in 1937.

These statistics are taken from the Twenty-Eighth Annual Report on Labor Organization in Canada for the calendar year 1938.

According to an audit of the Dominion Department of Finance, the paid-up membership of the Trades and Labor Congress of Canada at the close of the calendar year 1938 was 141,875, and that of the All-Canadian Congress of Labor was 22,269. It is usually maintained that members in arrears constitute a high proportion of the total members—in some cases as high as 25 percent.

The distribution of 385,039 trade-union members by industry groups in 1938 was as follows.

	Member- ship	Per- cent
All industry groups-----	385, 039	100. 0
Mining and quarrying-----	31, 212	8. 1
Building-----	31, 132	8. 1
Metal-----	35, 608	9. 3
Printing and paper making-----	25, 386	6. 6
Clothing, boots and shoes-----	36, 364	9. 4
Railroad employees-----	80, 950	21. 0
Other transportation and navigation-----	35, 006	9. 1
Public employees, personal service, and amusement-----	40, 372	10. 5
All other trades and general labor-----	69, 009	17. 9

Unions With Large Memberships

Of the 98 international organizations with branches or members in the Dominion, 18 had 5,000 members or over. Seven of these important bodies are composed of employees connected with railroad operation. In the Canadian group, 2 unions had more than 5,000 members—1 of these also a railway organization.

The names of the 20 organizations are listed according to the numerical strength of these unions which, combined, include 181,419 or 47 percent of the total trade-union membership of the Dominion:

International Trade-Unions Having 5,000 or More Members in Canada¹

Organization	Number of Canadian local units	Reported Canadian membership
Total, all organizations-----	1, 308	181, 419
United Mine Workers of America-----	73	22, 424
Canadian Brotherhood of Railway Employees-----	177	15, 305
Brotherhood of Maintenance-of-Way Employees-----	198	13, 500
Brotherhood of Railway Carmen of America-----	112	11, 825
Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen-----	92	11, 229
Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America-----	20	11, 155
International Brotherhood of Pulp, Sulphite and Paper Mill Workers-----	45	10, 600
International Union United Automobile Workers of America-----	5	9, 568
International Ladies' Garment Workers Union-----	16	8, 307
United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners of America-----	83	8, 172
Brotherhood of Railway and Steamship Clerks, Freight Handlers, Express and Station Employees-----	97	7, 525
Amalgamated Association of Street, Electric Railway and Motor Coach Em- ployees of America-----	25	7, 059
Steel Workers' Organizing Committee-----	13	6, 849
International Association of Machinists-----	82	6, 751
Canadian Seamen's Union-----	5	5, 800
Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen-----	96	5, 350
Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers-----	96	5, 000
International Longshoremen's Association-----	29	5, 000
American Federation of Musicians-----	31	5, 000
Order of Railroad Telegraphers-----	13	5, 000

¹ Include two unions that are not international.

Industrial Disputes

TREND OF STRIKES

STRIKE activity in March 1940¹ was at a much lower level than in March a year ago, preliminary estimates indicating only 74 percent as many strikes, 58 percent as many workers involved, and 65 percent as many man-days idle.

Trend of Strikes, 1933 to March 1940¹

Year and month	Number of strikes					Workers involved in strikes		Man-days idle during month or year
	Continued from preceding	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	Ended in month	In effect at end of month	Beginning in month or year	In progress during month	
1933.....		1, 095				1, 168, 272		16, 872, 128
1934.....		1, 856				1, 466, 695		19, 591, 949
1935.....		2, 014				1, 117, 213		15, 456, 337
1936.....		2, 172				788, 648		13, 901, 956
1937.....		4, 740				1, 860, 621		28, 424, 857
1938.....		2, 772				688, 376		9, 148, 273
1939.....		2, 613				1, 170, 962		17, 812, 219
<i>1939</i>								
January.....	120	203	323	184	139	51, 159	72, 427	513, 460
February.....	139	204	343	204	139	68, 252	88, 267	553, 138
March.....	139	210	349	199	150	43, 337	64, 060	618, 147
April.....	150	281	431	255	176	396, 166	425, 748	4, 902, 238
May.....	176	258	434	272	162	95, 239	457, 407	3, 547, 868
June.....	162	245	407	269	138	62, 534	127, 474	958, 127
July.....	138	251	389	216	173	175, 542	211, 548	1, 168, 382
August.....	173	275	448	272	176	79, 670	118, 772	1, 101, 419
September.....	176	197	373	222	151	36, 846	103, 538	892, 485
October.....	151	205	356	217	139	106, 628	139, 608	1, 508, 120
November.....	139	178	317	201	116	43, 239	130, 341	1, 604, 574
December.....	116	106	222	128	94	12, 350	37, 122	384, 261
<i>1940</i>								
January.....	94	101	195	106	89	23, 964	38, 311	238, 909
February ¹	89	136	225	135	90	27, 000	38, 000	300, 000
March ¹	90	155	245	145	100	25, 000	45, 000	400, 000

¹ Strikes involving fewer than 6 workers or lasting less than 1 day are not included in this table nor in the following tables. Notices or leads regarding strikes are obtained by the Bureau from more than 650 daily papers, labor papers, and trade journals, as well as from all Government labor boards. Letters are written to representatives of parties in the disputes asking for detailed and authentic information. Since answers to some of these letters have not yet been received, the figures given for the late months are not final. This is particularly true with regard to figures for the last 2 months, and these should be considered as preliminary estimates.

There was, as usual, a slight seasonal increase in March 1940. Estimates show about 14 percent more strikes in March than in February, roughly the same number of workers involved, and 33 percent more man-days of idleness. The increase in man-days of idleness was due in part to the strike of South Atlantic Coast longshoremen which began late in February and continued until March 13. There were no large strikes beginning in March—none involving as many as 3,000 workers.

The figures given for February and March in the foregoing table are preliminary estimates based on newspaper reports and other information available as this goes to press. An analysis of strikes in each of these months, based on detailed and verified information, will appear in subsequent issues of the Monthly Labor Review.



STRIKES IN JANUARY 1940¹

THE number of strikes beginning in January was lower than in any month since December 1935. The Bureau has received detailed information on 101 strikes which began in January, involving more than 23,000 workers. These strikes, with 94 that continued into January from preceding months, made a total of 195 strikes in progress during the month, involving over 38,000 workers and resulting in 238,000 man-days of idleness.

About 48 percent of the strikes beginning in January were in the following 4 industry groups: Textiles 14; building and construction 14; transportation and communication 11; and trade 10. There were more workers involved (6,500) in the textile industries than in any other group. Other groups having comparatively large numbers of workers involved were: Transportation and communication (4,300), trade (3,700), and food products (1,800). The strikes in these 4 groups accounted for about 68 percent of the total workers involved in all strikes beginning in January.

The industry groups having the largest number of man-days of idleness were: Textiles (42,000), transportation and communication (26,000), trade (22,000), and machinery manufacturing (18,000).

¹ Detailed information on a few strikes has not yet been received. (See footnote to preceding table.) Data on missing strikes will be included in the annual report.

TABLE 1.—*Strikes in January 1940, by Industry*

Industry	Beginning in January		In progress during January		Man-days idle during January
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All industries.....	101	23,964	195	38,311	238,909
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery.....	4	781	6	1,082	15,155
Cast-iron pipe and fittings.....			1	280	6,160
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.....			1	21	402
Stoves.....	2	231	2	231	2,583
Wire and wire products.....	1	150	1	150	1,930
Other.....	1	400	1	400	4,000
Machinery, not including transportation equipment.....	5	426	10	1,159	18,518
Agricultural implements.....	1	60	2	185	2,616
Cash registers, adding machines, and typewriters.....			1	9	36
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies.....	2	330	3	445	5,248
Foundry and machine-shop products.....	1	20	3	504	10,968
Radios and phonographs.....	1	16	1	16	48
Transportation equipment.....	2	1,458	5	1,773	8,508
Aircraft.....	1	1,258	1	1,258	1,258
Automobiles, bodies and parts.....			3	315	7,050
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad.....	1	200	1	200	200
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	3	372	5	629	4,330
Jewelry.....			1	9	234
Smelting and refining—copper, lead, and zinc.....	1	120	2	368	3,792
Stamped and enameled ware.....	2	252	2	252	304
Lumber and allied products.....	3	348	7	755	15,745
Furniture.....			2	145	3,558
Millwork and planing.....	1	240	1	240	4,060
Sawmills and logging camps.....	1	93	2	110	1,692
Other.....	1	15	2	260	6,415
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	1	40	3	387	7,874
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....			1	243	5,346
Marble, granite, slate, and other products.....	1	40	1	40	240
Other.....			1	104	2,288
Textiles and their products.....	14	6,593	38	9,005	42,513
Fabrics:					
Cotton goods.....	2	620	2	620	1,990
Cotton small wares.....			1	40	160
Silk and rayon goods.....	2	254	4	382	2,840
Woolen and worsted goods.....	1	35	1	35	525
Wearing apparel:					
Clothing, men's.....	1	88	1	88	176
Clothing, women's.....	6	5,519	23	7,087	28,435
Hosiery.....			1	428	2,700
Knitgoods.....	1	50	4	298	5,606
Other.....	1	27	1	27	81
Leather and its manufactures.....	3	1,088	4	1,097	2,781
Leather.....	1	61	1	61	610
Other leather goods.....	2	1,027	3	1,036	2,171
Food and kindred products.....	6	1,829	7	1,836	4,376
Baking.....	2	134	2	134	968
Beverages.....	1	250	2	257	1,383
Canning and preserving.....	2	1,345	2	1,345	1,725
Confectionery.....	1	100	1	100	300
Tobacco manufactures.....	1	25	1	25	300
Cigars.....	1	25	1	25	300
Paper and printing.....	6	248	12	593	5,979
Boxes, paper.....	1	83	4	248	2,679
Printing and publishing:					
Book and job.....	2	39	3	58	797
Newspapers and periodicals.....	1	10	2	18	186
Other.....	2	116	3	269	2,317

TABLE 1.—Strikes in January 1940, by Industry—Continued

Industry	Beginning in January		In progress during January		Man-days idle during January
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
Chemicals and allied products	2	149	4	478	9,710
Chemicals.....			1	150	2,700
Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal.....			1	179	5,549
Explosives.....	1	89	1	89	801
Paints and varnishes.....	1	60	1	60	660
Miscellaneous manufacturing	2	26	5	351	7,778
Furriers and fur factories.....			2	250	6,028
Other.....	2	26	3	101	1,750
Extraction of minerals	1	165	5	2,270	15,525
Coal mining, anthracite.....			1	140	3,080
Coal mining, bituminous.....	1	165	3	2,090	11,205
Metalliferous mining.....			1	40	1,240
Transportation and communication	11	4,345	17	9,456	26,915
Water transportation.....	3	147	6	4,747	12,400
Motortruck transportation.....	4	4,046	5	4,070	8,874
Motorbus transportation.....	1	24	2	31	193
Taxis and miscellaneous.....	1	14	2	494	5,180
Telephone and telegraph.....	1	104	1	104	208
Radio broadcasting and transmitting.....	1	10	1	10	60
Trade	10	3,745	20	4,066	22,393
Wholesale.....	5	282	8	349	2,605
Retail.....	5	3,463	12	3,717	19,788
Domestic and personal service	8	141	14	449	6,028
Hotels, restaurants, and boarding houses.....	5	54	7	162	930
Laundries.....	2	60	4	86	633
Dyeing, cleaning, and pressing.....			1	152	3,952
Elevator and maintenance workers (when not attached to specific industry).....	1	27	2	49	513
Professional service	1	22	4	367	8,412
Recreation and amusement.....	1	22	3	336	7,606
Semiprofessional, attendants, and helpers.....			1	31	806
Building and construction	14	1,656	21	1,965	10,700
Buildings, exclusive of P. W. A.....	10	609	12	772	4,940
All other construction (bridges, docks, etc., and P. W. A. buildings).....	4	1,047	9	1,193	5,760
Agriculture and fishing	2	365	3	406	3,247
Agriculture.....	1	15	2	58	447
Fishing.....	1	350	1	350	2,800
Other nonmanufacturing industries	2	142	4	160	1,724

Twenty-eight of the 101 strikes beginning in January were in New York State. There were 13 in Pennsylvania, 11 in California, and 9 in New Jersey. The greatest numbers of workers involved were in New York (6,600), Massachusetts (4,081), and Pennsylvania (2,534). The largest numbers of man-days of idleness because of strikes during the month occurred in New York (47,000), Pennsylvania and California (28,000 each), and Illinois (20,000). Two of the strikes beginning in January extended across State lines. The largest of these was a strike of coal drivers in New York City and Hudson County, N. J., which began January 17 and was settled January 20.

TABLE 2.—*Strikes in January 1940, by States*

State	Beginning in January		In progress during January		Man-days idle during January
	Number	Workers involved	Number	Workers involved	
All States.....	101	23,964	195	38,311	238,900
Alabama.....	1	640	1	640	640
Arizona.....	1	50	1	50	50
California.....	11	620	23	5,814	28,137
Connecticut.....	2	233	2	233	4,537
District of Columbia.....	2	163	2	163	525
Florida.....	2	96	2	96	532
Illinois.....	4	230	9	2,402	20,778
Indiana.....	3	201	6	794	13,088
Iowa.....	3	196	5	328	3,889
Louisiana.....	1	240	1	240	4,080
Maryland.....	1	350	2	550	5,590
Massachusetts.....	5	4,081	6	4,114	7,277
Michigan.....	2	406	3	1,281	8,270
Minnesota.....	2	178	2	178	2,892
Mississippi.....	1	16	2	34	521
Missouri.....	3	541	3	541	9,823
Montana.....	1	36	1	36	864
New Jersey.....	9	377	19	1,135	13,136
New York.....	28	6,600	56	7,709	47,104
Ohio.....	2	283	3	366	3,022
Oklahoma.....	1	480	1	480	4,970
Oregon.....	1	17	1	17	204
Pennsylvania.....	13	2,534	24	3,511	28,673
Rhode Island.....	1	21	1	21	462
South Carolina.....	1	270	2	295	1,160
Tennessee.....	3	222	4	650	3,254
Texas.....	2	550	3	574	4,424
Virginia.....	2	1,174	3	1,181	4,395
Washington.....	4	1,467	4	1,467	3,124
Wisconsin.....	1	25	1	25	300
Interstate.....	2	3,386	2	3,386	12,952

There was an average of 237 workers involved in the 101 strikes beginning in January. Most of the strikes were small, 66 percent of them involving fewer than 100 workers each. There were 28 percent which involved from 100 up to 1,000 workers each, and 6 percent which involved 1,000 or more workers each. There was only 1 stoppage in which as many as 5,000 workers were involved. That was in the women's coat and suit industry in Brooklyn (N. Y.) contracting shops, where the union charged that a number of contractors were not complying with existing agreements. The stoppage began January 24 and practically all of the workers had returned by January 29. (See table 3.)

In about 42 percent of the strikes beginning in January, the major issues were union-organization matters. Wages and hours were the principal issues in nearly 33 percent, and about 25 percent were due to miscellaneous causes, including rival-union and factional disputes, jurisdictional strikes, and disputes over various grievances such as increased work load, delayed pay, and need for improved living conditions (on boats). (See table 4.)

TABLE 3.—*Strikes Beginning in January 1940, Classified by Number of Workers Involved*

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes in which the number of workers involved was—					
		6 and under 20	20 and under 100	100 and under 500	500 and under 1,000	1,000 and under 5,000	5,000 and under 10,000
All industries.....	101	28	39	27	1	5	1
<i>Manufacturing</i>							
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery.....	4		1	3			
Machinery, not including transportation equipment.....	5	1	3	1			
Transportation equipment.....	2			1		1	
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	3		1	2			
Lumber and allied products.....	3	1	1	1			
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	1		1				
Textiles and their products.....	14	1	7	5			1
Leather and its manufactures.....	3		2			1	
Food and kindred products.....	6		3	2		1	
Tobacco manufactures.....	1		1				
Paper and printing.....	6	3	2	1			
Chemicals and allied products.....	2		2				
Miscellaneous manufacturing.....	2	2					
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>							
Extraction of minerals.....	1			1			
Transportation and communication.....	11	3	4	3		1	
Trade.....	10	6	2	1		1	
Domestic and personal service.....	8	6	2				
Professional service.....	1		1				
Building and construction.....	14	4	5	4	1		
Agriculture and fishing.....	2	1		1			
Other nonmanufacturing industries.....	2		1	1			

Of the workers involved in strikes beginning in the month, 67 per cent were in the strikes over wages and hours, 9½ per cent in the union-organization strikes and about 23 per cent in those over miscellaneous matters.

TABLE 4.—*Major Issues Involved in Strikes Beginning in January 1940*

Major issue	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
All issues.....	101	100.0	23,964	100.0
Wages and hours.....	33	32.7	16,108	67.2
Wage increase.....	19	18.8	9,881	41.1
Wage decrease.....	5	5.0	540	2.3
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	7	6.9	667	2.8
Wage decrease, hour increase.....	1	1.0	5,000	20.9
Hour decrease.....	1	1.0	20	.1
Union organization.....	43	42.5	2,265	9.5
Recognition.....	10	9.9	284	1.2
Recognition and wages.....	13	12.8	1,060	4.5
Recognition, wages, and hours.....	8	7.9	227	.9
Closed or union shop.....	9	8.9	446	1.9
Discrimination.....	3	3.0	248	1.0
Miscellaneous.....	25	24.8	5,591	23.3
Rival unions or factions.....	3	3.0	116	.5
Jurisdiction ¹	5	5.0	874	3.6
Other.....	17	16.8	4,601	19.2

¹ It is probable that the figures here given do not include all jurisdictional strikes. Owing to the local nature of these disputes, it is difficult for the Bureau to find out about all of them.

About 54 percent (106) of the 195 strikes in progress during January were terminated during the month. The average duration of these strikes was about 29 calendar days. Approximately 31 percent of them ended less than a week after they began, 36 percent lasted from a week up to a month, 24 percent lasted from 1 up to 3 months, and 7½ percent (8 strikes) had been in progress 3 months or more. Included in this group was the strike at the several plants of the Alpena Garment Co. in Michigan, which had been in progress since September 27, and the strike at the Holston Manufacturing Co. hosiery mill in Knoxville, Tenn., which began about the end of August.

TABLE 5.—Duration of Strikes Ending in January 1940

Industry group	Total	Number of strikes with duration of—					
		Less than 1 week	1 week and less than ½ month	½ and less than 1 month	1 and less than 2 months	2 and less than 3 months	3 months or more
All industries.....	106	33	19	20	17	9	8
<i>Manufacturing</i>							
Iron and steel and their products, not including machinery.....	2		1	1			
Machinery, not including transportation equipment.....	2		1	1			
Transportation equipment.....	2	2					
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	4	2		1			1
Lumber and allied products.....	3	1		1	1		
Textiles and their products.....	27	9	1	9	3		5
Leather and its manufactures.....	1			1			
Food and kindred products.....	6	3	1	1			1
Paper and printing.....	7	1	2		2	2	
Chemicals and allied products.....	2		1			1	
Miscellaneous manufacturing.....	1				1		
<i>Nonmanufacturing</i>							
Extraction of minerals.....	3	1			1		1
Transportation and communication.....	9	5	1		3		
Trade.....	9	2	3	1	2	1	
Domestic and personal service.....	9	2	4		1	2	
Professional service.....	1				1		
Building and construction.....	14	4	3	4	1	2	
Agriculture and fishing.....	2	1				1	
Other nonmanufacturing industries.....	2		1		1		

Of the 106 strikes ending in January, about 48 percent were settled by negotiations directly between the employers and representatives of organized workers. These strikes included 43 percent of the total workers involved. Government officials or boards assisted in negotiating settlements for about 32 percent of the strikes, which included nearly 53 percent of the workers involved. There were no formal settlements in about 18 percent of the strikes, which included only 3½ percent of the total workers involved. Most of these strikes were terminated when the workers returned to work without settlement of the disputed issues, or lost their jobs when the employers hired new workers, moved to another locality, or went out of business.

TABLE 6.—Methods of Negotiating Settlements of Strikes Ending in January 1940

Negotiations toward settlements carried on by—	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	106	100.0	29,478	100.0
Employers and workers directly.....	1	.9	200	.7
Employers and representatives of organized workers directly.....	51	48.2	12,690	43.0
Government officials or boards.....	34	32.1	15,517	52.7
Private conciliators or arbitrators.....	1	.9	6	(1)
Terminated without formal settlement.....	19	17.9	1,065	3.6

1 Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Of the 106 strikes ending in January, nearly 36 percent brought substantial gains to the workers, about 35 percent were compromised, and 21 percent resulted in little or no gains to the workers. Of the 29,478 workers involved, about 31 percent were in the strikes which were substantially won, 38 percent obtained compromise settlements, and 28½ percent gained little or nothing.

TABLE 7.—Results of Strikes Ending in January 1940

Result	Strikes		Workers involved	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total
Total.....	106	100.0	29,478	100.0
Substantial gains to workers.....	38	35.9	9,350	31.7
Partial gains or compromises.....	37	34.9	11,233	38.1
Little or no gains to workers.....	23	21.7	8,435	28.6
Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements.....	6	5.7	290	1.0
Indeterminate.....	1	.9	50	.2
Not reported.....	1	.9	120	.4

The strikes over wages and hours were more successful from the workers' viewpoint than were the union-organization strikes. Of the wage-and-hour strikes, about 56 percent were substantially won by the workers, 40 percent were compromised and about 3 percent brought little or no gains to the workers. The corresponding figures for the union-organization strikes were about 36 percent won, 29½ percent compromised and 34 percent which resulted in little or no gains.

Of the workers involved in the strikes over wages and hours, nearly 43 percent won their demands, about 57 percent obtained compromise settlements, and less than 1 percent made little or no gains. In the strikes over union-organization matters, 15 percent of the workers won most of their demands, 20 percent obtained compromise settlements and about 64 percent gained little or nothing.

TABLE 8.—Results of Strikes Ending in January 1940, in Relation to Major Issues Involved

Major issue	Total	Strikes resulting in—					
		Substantial gains to workers	Partial gains or compromises	Little or no gains to workers	Jurisdiction, rival union, or faction settlements	Indeterminate	Not reported
Number of strikes							
All issues.....	106	38	37	23	6	1	1
Wages and hours.....	30	17	12	1			
Wage increase.....	16	6	9	1			
Wage decrease.....	6	5	1				
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	7	5	2				
Wage decrease, hour increase.....	1	1					
Union organization.....	44	16	13	15			
Recognition.....	14	6	2	6			
Recognition and wages.....	8	3	2	3			
Recognition, wages, and hours.....	9	4	4	1			
Closed or union shop.....	11	1	5	5			
Discrimination.....	2	2					
Miscellaneous.....	32	5	12	7	6	1	1
Sympathy.....	2		1	1			
Rival unions or factions.....	3				3		
Jurisdiction.....	3				3		
Other.....	21	5	11	5			
Not reported.....	3			1		1	1
Number of workers involved							
All issues.....	29, 478	9, 350	11, 233	8, 435	290	50	120
Wages and hours.....	14, 649	6, 275	8, 329	45			
Wage increase.....	8, 700	490	8, 165	45			
Wage decrease.....	581	477	104				
Wage increase, hour decrease.....	368	308	60				
Wage decrease, hour increase.....	5, 000	5, 000					
Union organization.....	8, 123	1, 241	1, 626	5, 256			
Recognition.....	927	609	120	198			
Recognition and wages.....	781	298	181	302			
Recognition, wages, and hours.....	329	82	195	52			
Closed or union shop.....	5, 878	44	1, 130	4, 704			
Discrimination.....	208	208					
Miscellaneous.....	6, 706	1, 834	1, 278	3, 134	290	50	120
Sympathy.....	30		12	18			
Rival unions or factions.....	114				114		
Jurisdiction.....	176				176		
Other.....	6, 191	1, 834	1, 266	3, 091			
Not reported.....	195			25		50	120

ACTIVITIES OF THE UNITED STATES CONCILIATION SERVICE, MARCH 1940

THE United States Conciliation Service, in March, disposed of 333 situations involving 89,671 workers. The services of this agency were requested by the employees, employers, and other interested parties. Of these situations, 149 were strikes, threatened strikes, lock-outs, and controversies, involving 82,424 workers. The remaining situations, involving 7,247 workers, were services rendered, such as filling requests for information, adjusting complaints, holding conferences regarding labor conditions, etc.

The facilities of the Service were used in 23 major industrial fields, such as building trades and the manufacture of foods, iron and steel, textiles, etc. (table 1), and were utilized by employees and employers in 35 States and the District of Columbia (table 2).

TABLE 1.—*Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, March 1940, by Industries*

Industry	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Num-ber	Workers involved	Num-ber	Workers involved	Num-ber	Workers involved
All industries.....	149	82,424	184	7,247	333	89,671
Automobile.....	5	500	1	5	6	505
Building trades.....	10	5,086	15	447	25	5,533
Chemicals.....	7	869	3	406	10	1,275
Communications.....	1	180	1	3	2	183
Domestic and personal.....	6	2,506	9	53	15	2,649
Food.....	16	2,337	11	47	27	2,384
Iron and steel.....	16	15,804	5	5	21	15,809
Leather.....	1	79	2	2	3	81
Lumber.....	10	5,854	7	29	17	5,883
Machinery.....	11	7,177	9	11	20	7,188
Maritime.....	3	9,534	12	2,730	15	12,264
Mining.....	1	75	3	3	4	78
Paper.....	5	353			5	353
Petroleum.....	1	3,000	7	68	8	3,068
Printing.....	5	119	2	1,201	7	1,320
Professional.....	1	90			1	90
Rubber.....	2	125	3	8	5	133
Stone, clay, and glass.....	3	1,736	3	3	6	1,739
Textile.....	11	18,165	11	269	22	18,434
Trade.....	14	5,792	11	38	25	5,830
Transportation.....	9	180	13	267	22	447
Transportation equipment.....	3	2,170			3	2,170
Utilities.....	2	130	3	4	5	134
Unclassified.....	6	473	53	1,648	59	2,121

TABLE 2.—Situations Disposed of by U. S. Conciliation Service, March 1940, by States

State	Disputes		Other situations		Total	
	Num- ber	Workers involved	Num- ber	Workers involved	Num- ber	Workers involved
All States.....	149	82,424	184	7,247	333	89,671
Alabama.....	5	2,862	2	26	7	2,888
Arkansas.....	2	28	4	25	6	53
California.....	13	9,290	18	1,301	31	10,591
Colorado.....	1	35	1	1	2	36
Connecticut.....	2	385	1	1	3	386
District of Columbia.....	1	10	26	138	27	148
Florida.....	3	639	5	51	8	690
Georgia.....	1	35	3	8	4	43
Indiana.....	1	6	4	24	5	30
Illinois.....	14	6,910	12	442	26	7,352
Iowa.....	1	25			1	25
Kansas.....	1	200			1	200
Kentucky.....	2	36	2	7	4	43
Louisiana.....	3	211	2	2	5	213
Maryland.....	1	35	2	2	3	37
Massachusetts.....	6	2,479	5	304	11	2,783
Michigan.....	3	980	3	7	6	987
Minnesota.....	4	4,189	1	1	5	4,190
Missouri.....	10	2,429	11	61	21	2,490
Mississippi.....	2	1,015			2	1,015
New Jersey.....	4	310	1	1	5	311
New Mexico.....	1	6			1	6
New York.....	10	14,884	16	272	26	15,156
North Carolina.....	2	2,850	2	2	4	2,852
North Dakota.....	1	10			1	10
Ohio.....	11	12,638	12	325	23	12,963
Oklahoma.....			4	1,205	4	1,205
Oregon.....			3	227	3	227
Pennsylvania.....	23	16,086	12	100	35	16,186
South Carolina.....	1	600	6	6	7	606
South Dakota.....			3	36	3	36
Tennessee.....	6	658	7	224	13	882
Texas.....	6	1,164	3	39	9	1,203
Washington.....	4	1,132	7	2,353	11	3,485
West Virginia.....			3	3	3	3
Wisconsin.....	4	287	3	53	7	340

STRIKES AND LOCK-OUTS IN CANADA, 1939

THE number of strikes and lock-outs in Canada reported for 1939 was 122, a decrease of 25 as compared with the preceding year. The number of workers involved in the disputes of 1939, however, was 41,038, or more than double that of 1938. The time loss in 1939 was 224,588 man-working days, an increase of 75,910 over the number recorded for the previous 12 months. These increases resulted from a number of strikes in coal mines, mainly in Nova Scotia. The agreements between the leading Nova Scotia mining companies and the miners' unions expired at the close of January 1939. Although an arrangement was made that wages and working conditions provided in the agreements would continue, there were, pending negotiations for renewing the contracts, many disputes concerning labor conditions, modifications in local contract (piece

work) rates, etc., during 1939. The figures for all industries were considerably below those of 1937—the year having the greatest time loss, because of labor disputes, since 1925.

The above data and the following statistics are taken from the Canadian Labor Gazette for March 1940.

TABLE 1.—*Strikes and Lock-Outs in Canada, 1918 to 1939*

Year	Number of disputes—		Disputes in progress in year		
	In progress in year	Beginning in year	Number of employers involved	Total number of workers involved	Time lost (in man-days)
1918	230	228	782	79,743	647,942
1919	336	332	1,967	148,915	3,400,942
1920	322	310	1,374	60,327	799,524
1921	168	159	1,208	28,257	1,048,914
1922	104	89	732	43,775	1,528,661
1923	86	77	450	34,261	671,750
1924	70	64	435	34,310	1,295,054
1925	87	86	497	28,949	1,193,281
1926	77	75	512	23,834	266,601
1927	74	72	480	22,299	152,570
1928	98	96	548	17,581	224,212
1929	90	88	263	12,946	152,080
1930	67	67	338	13,768	91,797
1931	88	86	266	10,738	204,238
1932	116	111	497	23,390	255,000
1933	125	122	617	26,558	317,547
1934	191	189	1,100	45,800	574,519
1935	120	120	719	33,269	284,028
1936	156	155	709	34,812	276,997
1937	278	274	630	71,905	886,393
1938	147	142	614	20,395	148,678
1939	122	120	243	41,038	224,588

Analysis of strikes and lock-outs, by industries, discloses that the 50 mining disputes in 1939 included over 75 percent of the workers in all disputes and were the cause of more than half of the time loss in that year. The 43 disputes in the manufacturing industries accounted for 36 percent of the time loss and nearly 20 percent of the workers, as reported in table 2.

TABLE 2.—*Strikes and Lock-Outs in Canada, 1939, by Industries*

Industry	Disputes		Workers involved		Time loss	
	Number	Percent of total	Number	Percent of total	Man-days	Percent of total
Total	122	100.0	41,038	100.0	224,588	100.0
Logging	1	.8	70	.1	210	-----
Fishing and trapping	1	.8	15	-----	40	-----
Mining, etc. ¹	50	41.0	31,333	76.4	122,074	54.4
Electric light and power ¹	43	35.2	7,901	19.3	80,962	36.1
Manufacturing	11	9.0	683	1.7	1,414	.6
Construction	4	3.3	265	.6	325	.2
Transportation and public utilities	4	3.3	563	1.4	18,864	8.4
Trade	8	6.6	208	.5	699	.3
Service						

¹ The electric light and power group does not include enterprises that are public utilities; nonferrous smelting is included with mining.

Minimum Wages and Maximum Hours

RECENT WAGE ORDERS UNDER FAIR LABOR STANDARDS ACT

WAGE orders covering workers in the knitted outerwear, knitted underwear and commercial knitting, and shoe industries were recently made by the Administrator of the wage and hour law.¹ In all, six such orders have now been promulgated under the provision of the Fair Labor Standards Act that a universal wage of 40 cents an hour shall be reached as rapidly as possible, without substantially curtailing employment or earning power, in the industries subject to the terms of the legislation.² A minimum wage of 35 cents to be paid to all workers engaged in interstate commerce or the production of knitted outerwear for interstate commerce will become effective on July 1, 1940; a minimum wage of 33.5 cents an hour became effective in the knitted underwear industry on May 6; and a minimum wage of 35 cents an hour was ordered in the shoe industry, effective on April 29.

The knitted outerwear industry employs an average of 23,000 factory workers and an undetermined number of industrial home workers. The latter are largely engaged in making infants' knitted wear. It is estimated that some 7,500 of the factory workers are paid less than 35 cents an hour, the minimum rate which will go into effect July 1. The industry is concentrated in the Middle Atlantic States and in New England. Establishments in New York State employ 20 percent of the total workers; in Pennsylvania, 15 percent; in Massachusetts, 15 percent. Such manufacture is also carried on in some volume in Ohio, Wisconsin, and California. Less than 10 percent of the employees in this industry are located in the South.

The knitted underwear and commercial knitting industry as defined for the committee is carried on in some 500 establishments located principally in New York, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, North Carolina, Massachusetts, and Virginia. The industry employs some 60,000 workers and it is estimated that about 17,000 of these were paid less than 33½ cents an hour before the wage order became effective. The industry produces about \$150,000,000 worth of goods a year. The 33½ cent minimum was recommended by a committee of 24 members.

¹ Department of Labor. Wage and Hour Division. Press releases Nos. 690, 699, and 703.

² For the hosiery, cotton textile, and millinery orders, see *Monthly Labor Review* for October and December 1939 and February 1940, respectively.

In reviewing conditions in the shoe industry, the Administrator stated that more than 60,000 shoe workers of the 240,000 employed by the industry would benefit from the wage order. Shoe workers who will have their wages raised are located in many States, but are concentrated in New England and the St. Louis area. Several manufacturers stressed the need for uniform and universal enforcement of the wage order as the shoe industry has more than 2,000 establishments.



AMENDED FERTILIZER WAGE DETERMINATION UNDER PUBLIC CONTRACTS ACT ¹

THE wage determination affecting labor engaged in the manufacture or supply of commercial fertilizers for Government contracts was amended on March 20, 1940, to provide that employees in the States of North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Arkansas, Oklahoma, and Texas, should be paid not less than 30 cents an hour or \$12 per week of 40 hours. By the terms of the determination made by the Secretary of Labor on August 15, 1939,² under the public contracts law (Walsh-Healy Act) the minimum hourly rate of pay for Government work was fixed at 25 cents an hour in these States. The new rate of pay became effective on April 19, 1940.

¹ U. S. Department of Labor. Division of Public Contracts. Press release No. 1206, March 20, 1940.

² See Monthly Labor Review for October 1939 for this determination.

Wages and Hours of Labor

HOURLY EARNINGS IN THE PAPERBOARD INDUSTRY, NOVEMBER-DECEMBER 1939¹

Summary

A SURVEY recently completed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics revealed that earnings of employees in the paperboard-manufacturing industry² averaged 59.8 cents an hour in November-December 1939. The survey, which is here summarized, also shows that the hourly earnings of workers in this industry vary considerably in different parts of the country. In the Pacific States, for example, hourly earnings averaged 73.8 cents. In contrast, employees in the group of States making up the East Central region averaged only 48.5 cents an hour. Average hourly earnings in the Northeastern States amounted to 60.6 cents as compared with 61.1 cents in the Midwestern section, 64.2 cents in the Lake States of Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, and 52.8 cents in the Southern region.

Scope and Method of Survey

DEFINITION OF INDUSTRY

As defined for the purpose of this survey, the paperboard industry includes the manufacture of container boards, boxboards, building boards and papers, rag felts, and related products. The survey also included the preparation of pulp from waste paper, straw, and rags, but it did not cover departments in which wood-pulping operations were performed. The first processing of waste paper, straw, and rags for paperboard purposes is usually done in the paperboard mill, and consequently it forms an integral part of paperboard manufacture. Most of the wood pulp used, however, is supplied by independent pulp mills, as few of the board plants engage in the primary pulping operations on this raw material. For this reason, the wood-pulp departments found among the plants scheduled were excluded from the coverage.

¹ This article was prepared by H. E. Riley of the Bureau's Division of Wage and Hour Statistics, under the direction of Jacob Perlman, chief.

² The study was made at the request of the Research and Statistics Branch of the Wage and Hour Division. In this survey the Bureau of Labor Statistics has followed its usual practice of respecting the confidential nature of all information supplied by individual establishments.

The definition excludes paper, with the exception of heavy building papers. Some of the establishments scheduled also make various types of paper in addition to paperboard. Workers on these products were excluded from the coverage in all except a few plants, where the paper-making operations could not be segregated.

Many paperboard producers are also engaged in converting operations. Employees working in these departments were excluded from the survey.

NATURE OF DATA COLLECTED

The data presented in this report were obtained through a field survey, which was made by the Bureau of Labor Statistics during November and December 1939. In accordance with the Bureau's usual procedure, the information was collected by field representatives, who visited the selected plants to interview plant officials and copy the required pay-roll records.

The survey covered a representative group of establishments and included approximately 50 percent of the wage earners in the industry. In selecting the plants to be scheduled, consideration was given to all significant factors, including type of product, geographical location, corporate affiliation, size of mill, size of community, and unionization.

The data on average hourly earnings cover all wage earners in each plant, including working foremen and factory clerks, but excluding higher plant supervisors and central-office employees. For each person scheduled, the Bureau obtained the occupational designation, sex, color, and method of wage payment, together with the number of hours worked and the total earnings for one pay-roll period.³ In entering the data, earnings at regular rates of pay were separated from payments at extra rates for overtime work, and the latter have been excluded from the data dealt with in this report. Consequently, it must be borne in mind that the figures shown here do not reflect the employees' total earnings in all cases, as many of the workers received substantial payments at extra rates for time worked beyond 42 hours per week.⁴

For practically all plants, the pay-roll period covered fell within the months of November or December 1939. In only three establishments did the survey include any figures for periods prior to October 24, 1939, the date on which the 30-cent hourly minimum-wage rate became effective under the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act. The data obtained for these plants show, however, that the adjustment to the 30-cent minimum required little, if any, change in their wage structure.

³ Only 22 females were employed (exclusive of central-office employees) at the time of the survey by the plants scheduled. No analysis by occupation, sex, and skill is presented in this report.

⁴ The Fair Labor Standards Act requires the payment of time and a half for time worked beyond 42 hours per week, but a number of the plants paid extra rates for time worked beyond 40 hours per week.

Analysis of Sample

The survey covered 16,332 wage earners, employed in 134 establishments. As previously mentioned, the selection of plants to be scheduled was made in such a way as to obtain a representative cross section of the industry. Accordingly, a description of the characteristics of the establishments surveyed will indicate the outstanding features of the industry as a whole.⁵

As shown by table 1, the paperboard industry is widely distributed in the United States. In terms of wage earners scheduled, Michigan, in the Lake region, is the most important State, with 9.9 percent of the total. Next in size, however, is Louisiana, with 9.2 percent of the workers covered. Of almost equal importance are the States of New York, Illinois, New Jersey, and Ohio.

Most of the establishments in the paperboard industry are relatively small in size, as measured by employment. On the basis of average monthly employment during 1939, including all wage earners in each plant, 3 mills had fewer than 21 employees, 23 between 21 and 50, 25 from 51 to 100, 39 from 101 to 250, 17 between 251 and 500, 19 from 501 to 1,000, and 8 between 1,000 and 2,500. It will be observed that over two-thirds of the plants employed fewer than 250 wage earners.

TABLE 1.—Coverage of Survey in the Paperboard Industry, by Region and State, November–December 1939

Region and State	Number of plants	Workers		Region and State	Number of plants	Workers	
		Number	Per cent			Number	Per cent
United States.....	134	16,332	100.0	Southern region—continued			
Northeastern region.....	57	4,990	30.5	Louisiana.....	5	1,501	9.2
Connecticut.....	11	780	4.8	Other States ³	6	638	3.9
Massachusetts.....	7	617	3.8	Midwestern region.....	33	3,994	24.4
New Jersey.....	11	1,392	8.5	Illinois.....	10	1,406	8.6
New York.....	16	1,460	8.9	Indiana.....	7	765	4.7
Pennsylvania.....	7	563	3.4	Ohio.....	12	1,349	8.2
Other States ¹	5	178	1.1	Other States ⁴	4	474	2.9
East Central region.....	9	972	6.0	Lake region.....	12	2,418	14.8
Maryland.....	3	289	1.8	Michigan.....	7	1,614	9.9
Tennessee.....	3	230	1.4	Other States ⁵	5	804	4.9
Other States ²	3	453	2.8	Pacific region.....	9	972	6.0
Southern region.....	14	2,986	18.3	California.....	6	693	4.3
Florida.....	3	847	5.2	Other States ⁶	3	279	1.7

¹ Includes 2 plants in Maine and 3 plants in New Hampshire.

² Includes 2 plants in Virginia and 1 plant in West Virginia.

³ Includes 1 plant in Alabama, 1 in Arkansas, 1 in Georgia, 1 in North Carolina, and 2 in South Carolina.

⁴ Includes 2 plants in Iowa, 1 in Kansas, and 1 in Missouri.

⁵ Includes 2 plants in Minnesota and 3 plants in Wisconsin.

⁶ Includes 1 plant in Oregon and 2 plants in Washington.

Although the single-plant company predominates in the paperboard industry, a number of important producers have two or more plants. Several large companies have mills in nearly every important pro-

⁵ The reports of the United States Census of Manufactures do not show separate data for the paperboard industry.

ducing area. Many of these establishments are also substantial producers of converted paper and paperboard products.

The majority of the paperboard plants are in relatively small communities. Over half (72) of the establishments surveyed were in communities of less than 50,000 population; 39 plants were found in places of under 10,000 population. Of the remaining mills, 18 were in cities of 50,000 to 250,000, 15 in places of 250,000 to 500,000, 9 in communities of 500,000 to 1,000,000 and 20 in metropolitan areas of 1,000,000 and over. Only 2 of the plants in places of 500,000 and over were situated in Southern States.

Of the 134 establishments covered by the survey, 71 had neither pulp nor converting departments, 14 made wood pulp but did no converting, 45 did not have pulp departments but were engaged in converting, while only 4 plants had both wood-pulp mills and converting departments.

No precise classification of paperboard plants on the basis of product is possible, because of the fact that a large proportion of these establishments made several types of paperboard. According to information supplied at the time of the survey, about four-fifths of the plants scheduled may be classified as engaged primarily in the production of a specific type of paperboard. Of this number, 6 made wallboard; 15 made fiberboard for shoes, chair seats, wastebaskets, etc.; 16 mills produced boards of various thicknesses in which wood pulp was the chief raw material; 47 plants reported their principal products to be various types of chip board and newsboard made of waste paper; 9 establishments made strawboard, chiefly for corrugating; and 16 manufactured felts for roofing and similar purposes. The remaining 25 plants could not be classified or did not report which of several products constituted the greater part of their output. The manufacture of most of the products was found to be widely distributed geographically, the chief exceptions being strawboard, which is confined almost entirely to the Midwest, and fiberboard, especially shoe board, which was principally concentrated in the Northeastern region.

Union organization is fairly extensive in the paperboard industry. Of the 134 plants surveyed, 48, or about one-third, had agreements with international unions. The proportion of wage earners employed in plants having agreements ranged from 22.2 percent of the total scheduled in the Northeastern region to virtually 100 percent in the Pacific States. Union plants employed 36.7 percent of the wage earners covered in the East Central, 34.1 percent in the Southern, 44.5 percent in the Midwestern, and 56.7 percent in the Lake regions. The most important labor organizations in the industry are the International Brotherhood of Paper Makers and the International Brother-

hood of Pulp, Sulphite and Paper Mill Workers, both of which are affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. These organizations frequently negotiate joint agreements with employers. A few plants were found to have agreements with other labor organizations, most of whose members are employed in other industries. Both A. F. of L. and C. I. O. affiliates were included in this group.

Average Hourly Earnings

Hourly earnings of all wage earners covered by the survey averaged 59.8 cents in November–December 1939. Wide variations in hourly earnings were found, however, among the different plants and in the various sections of the country. As shown by table 2, the plant averages ranged from under 35 cents to over 82.5 cents an hour, although a considerable majority of the establishments averaged between 47.5 and 70 cents. The distribution of plant averages reveals substantial differences in the general level of hourly earnings among the various geographical regions.

TABLE 2.—Distribution of Paperboard Plants by Average Hourly Earnings and Region
November–December 1939

Average hourly earnings	United States	North-eastern region ¹	East Central region ²	South-ern region ³	Mid-western region ⁴	Lake region ⁵	Pacific region ⁶
32.5 and under 35.0 cents	1			1			
40.0 and under 42.5 cents	6	3		2		1	
42.5 and under 45.0 cents	6		2	2			
45.0 and under 47.5 cents	8	3	2	2	1		
47.5 and under 50.0 cents	10	5	2		3		
50.0 and under 52.5 cents	8	7			1		
52.5 and under 55.0 cents	12	3	1		6	2	
55.0 and under 57.5 cents	15	8	2	1	3	1	
57.5 and under 60.0 cents	11	5		1	3	2	
60.0 and under 62.5 cents	13	5		3	4	1	
62.5 and under 65.0 cents	10	6			4		
65.0 and under 67.5 cents	7			1	3	1	2
67.5 and under 70.0 cents	11	5			3	1	2
70.0 and under 72.5 cents	5	1		1	2	1	
72.5 and under 75.0 cents	6	1				2	3
75.0 and under 77.5 cents	1	1					
77.5 and under 80.0 cents	2	1					1
80.0 and under 82.5 cents	1	1					
82.5 and under 85.0 cents	1						1
Total	134	57	9	14	33	12	9

¹ Includes Maine, Vermont, New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Delaware.

² Includes Maryland, West Virginia, Virginia, Kentucky, District of Columbia, and Tennessee.

³ Includes North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, Louisiana, Oklahoma, and Texas.

⁴ Includes Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, Idaho, Wyoming, Nevada, Utah, Colorado, New Mexico, and Arizona.

⁵ Includes Minnesota, Wisconsin, and Michigan.

⁶ Includes Washington, Oregon, and California.

Table 3 supplies further evidence of the geographical differences in wage levels. Thus, average hourly earnings ranged from 48.5 cents in the East Central region to 73.8 cents in the Pacific region. Marked variations are found in the distributions according to average hourly earnings in the different wage areas. In the Southern region, for example, earnings ranged from less than 30 cents to about \$1.50 an hour, with nearly one-fourth (23.7 percent) of the workers paid under 39.5 cents. In the East Central region, none of the workers earned under 33.5 cents, but over one-third (34.2 percent) received less than 39.5 cents. None of the employees in the Pacific region, on the other hand, received under 49.5 cents, while over one-eighth (13.9 percent) were paid 89.5 cents or more. Similarly, in the Midwestern and Lake regions, very few workers earned under 39.5 cents, while a majority of the earnings fell between 49.5 and 79.5 cents, the proportions included within this range amounting to 75.4 percent in the Midwestern and 74.6 percent in the Lake area. This general pattern of earnings is also found in the Northeastern region.

The wide variation in plant average hourly earnings, as shown by table 2, indicates that other than regional factors may influence the wage structure. Among these are type of product, size of plant, and unionization.

Because of the wide variety of products covered by the survey, it is very difficult to develop any positive relationship between type of product and average hourly earnings. In many instances, an apparent product difference is obscured by variations caused by size of establishment, geographical location, etc. For example, among the 15 plants that can be definitely identified as engaged primarily in the production of fiberboards of the type used for shoe findings, 3 averaged under 45 cents, 5 between 45 and 50 cents, 3 between 50 and 55 cents, 3 between 55 and 60 cents, and only 1 had an average of over 60 cents. Of the 16 plants producing felts, 2 averaged between 45 and 50 cents, 2 from 50 to 55 cents, and 12 had averages of over 60 cents. A comparison of these two groups by size of establishment reveals, however, that 11 of the 15 fiberboard plants employed under 50 wage earners, whereas all but 3 of the 16 felt manufacturers had over 100 wage earners.

TABLE 3.—Percentage Distribution of Paperboard Workers by Average Hourly Earnings and Region, November–December 1939

Average hourly earnings	United States	North-eastern region	East Central region	South-ern region	Mid-western region	Lake region	Pacific region
Under 30.5 cents.	0.6			3.3	0.1		
30.5 and under 31.5 cents.	.1			.3	(¹)		
31.5 and under 32.5 cents.	(¹)			.1			
32.5 and under 33.5 cents.	.2	0.3		.3			
33.5 and under 34.5 cents.	.1		0.1	.2	(¹)	0.7	
34.5 and under 35.5 cents.	.8	.1	1.3	3.7	.2		
35.5 and under 36.5 cents.	2.2	.1	2.1	11.3			
36.5 and under 37.5 cents.	1.2	.2	16.6	.7	.1	.1	
37.5 and under 38.5 cents.	1.2	.4	10.8	2.7			
38.5 and under 39.5 cents.	.5	(¹)	3.3	1.1	.2	.2	
39.5 and under 44.5 cents.	8.9	6.2	20.6	24.6	5.1	.3	
44.5 and under 49.5 cents.	11.0	12.6	12.0	14.1	9.4	10.7	
49.5 and under 54.5 cents.	13.1	16.7	7.0	8.5	17.3	12.3	0.1
54.5 and under 59.5 cents.	15.4	20.3	6.5	6.2	19.7	18.2	1.6
59.5 and under 69.5 cents.	22.9	21.8	11.3	7.1	27.5	29.9	49.3
69.5 and under 79.5 cents.	10.4	10.4	4.0	4.2	10.9	14.2	21.6
79.5 and under 89.5 cents.	5.5	5.5	1.3	3.6	5.5	7.5	10.5
89.5 and under 99.5 cents.	2.8	2.5	2.3	3.4	1.6	2.7	8.1
99.5 and under 124.5 cents.	2.6	2.1	.4	3.5	2.1	3.0	5.6
124.5 and under 149.5 cents.	.4	.5	.4	1.0	.2	.2	
149.5 cents and over.	.1	.3		.1	.1		.2
Total.	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers.	16,332	4,990	972	2,986	3,994	2,418	972
Average hourly earnings.	\$0.598	\$0.606	\$0.485	\$0.528	\$0.611	\$0.642	\$0.738

¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

Of the 47 establishments that were reported to be engaged primarily in the manufacture of boxboards made of waste paper, 10 averaged under 50 cents, 15 had averages of 50 and under 60 cents, 13 averaged 60 and under 70, and 9 had averages of 70 cents and over. Among the plants in this group having fewer than 100 employees, 8 averaged under 50 cents, 9 from 50 to 60 cents, and 5 from 60 to 70 cents. Of the plants having 100 employees or more, on the other hand, only 2 averaged under 50 cents, 6 had averages of 55 and under 60 cents, 8 averaged from 60 to 70 cents, and 9 showed averages of 70 cents and over. This group of establishments affords evidence of variations in hourly earnings according to size of establishment. Among the other product groups, size of establishment appears to have played a less important part, possibly because of the influence of other factors which cannot be segregated for more detailed analysis.

Wage levels generally tended to be higher in union than in non-union plants. In the Northern area (including all but the East Central and Southern regions), for example, 18 of the 69 nonunion plants had averages of under 50 cents an hour, whereas none of the 42 mills having union contracts showed averages below that amount. On the other hand, 19 union, as compared with 13 nonunion establishments, averaged 65 cents or more. In the East Central and

Southern regions, 12 of the 17 nonunion plants averaged under 55 cents. Of the 6 union establishments, however, only 2 had averages under this figure.

DIFFERENCES AMONG GROUPS OF PLANTS WITH VARIOUS WAGE LEVELS

Table 4 presents the distribution of workers according to average hourly earnings in plants having different wage levels. It will be observed that the proportion of employees under 39.5 cents an hour was substantial only in establishments having averages of under 50 cents. In the 13 mills averaging under 45 cents, over two-fifths (44.9 percent) of the workers received less than 39.5 cents. Among the 18 establishments with averages between 45 and 50 cents, the proportion amounted to 18.4 percent. In none of the groups of plants averaging 50 cents and over did the proportion of workers under 39.5 cents amount to as much as 2.0 percent of the total.

TABLE 4.—Percentage Distribution of Paperboard Workers by Average Hourly Earnings and Plant Groups, November–December 1939

Average hourly earnings	All plants	Plants having average hourly earnings of—					
		Under 45 cents	45 and under 50 cents	50 and under 55 cents	55 and under 60 cents	60 and under 70 cents	70 cents and over
29.5 and under 30.5 cents	0.6	2.5	1.9	0.2	0.1	0.5	
30.5 and under 31.5 cents	.1	.1	.4			(¹)	
31.5 and under 32.5 cents	(¹)		.1			(¹)	
32.5 and under 33.5 cents	.2	1.2	.2			(¹)	
33.5 and under 34.5 cents	.1	1.2	.1	.1			
34.5 and under 35.5 cents	.8	5.7	.6	.3	.3	.3	(¹)
35.5 and under 36.5 cents	2.2	19.5	1.4	.1		.1	
36.5 and under 37.5 cents	1.2	5.2	6.7	.6	.2	.1	
37.5 and under 38.5 cents	1.2	7.1	5.1	.3	.2	(¹)	
38.5 and under 39.5 cents	.5	2.4	1.9	.2		.1	
39.5 and under 44.5 cents	8.9	26.4	31.3	6.0	8.6	3.4	0.1
44.5 and under 49.5 cents	11.0	13.1	19.4	33.6	15.7	4.1	3.5
49.5 and under 54.5 cents	13.1	6.3	11.4	26.7	26.7	9.9	1.8
54.5 and under 59.5 cents	15.4	3.7	5.8	12.0	15.9	25.3	3.6
59.5 and under 69.5 cents	22.9	3.7	8.6	12.1	15.8	30.2	40.5
69.5 and under 79.5 cents	10.4	1.1	2.7	4.3	7.6	12.7	23.1
79.5 and under 89.5 cents	5.5	.6	1.3	2.2	4.0	6.6	12.3
89.5 and under 99.5 cents	2.8		.5	.8	2.6	3.3	6.3
99.5 and under 124.5 cents	2.6	.1	.4	.3	1.8	2.8	7.4
124.5 and under 149.5 cents	.4	.1	.1	.1	.4	.5	.9
149.5 cents and over	.1		.1	.1	.1	.1	.5
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Number of workers	16,332	1,708	1,390	1,429	3,069	6,382	2,354
Number of plants	134	13	18	20	26	41	16

¹ Less than a tenth of 1 percent.

GEOGRAPHICAL DIFFERENCES IN HOURS AND WAGES, 1935 AND 1937

By A. F. HINRICHS and ARTHUR F. BEAL, *Bureau of Labor Statistics*

ANALYSIS of hourly wages in 1937, indicated that in the North in 24,411 selected establishments in 105 industries the average hourly wage was 69.1 cents, in the South 47.8 cents, and in the West 69.7 cents. These figures are valuable as measures of gross purchasing power in the several areas or regions, but they do not measure wage levels for identical kinds of work. They merely show employment opportunities seriously influenced by the prevailing types of industries in each area. The figures for the North, for example, reflect the concentration of the high-wage motor-vehicle and steel industries in that area, whereas the predominant industry in the southern sample is cotton textiles, an industry with relatively low earnings. The purpose of the present study is to obtain indexes representing wage levels for the same types of work in each of the several geographic areas, and for districts within these areas wherever possible.¹

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Average Hours, Wages per Man-Hour, and other Items, in 105 Manufacturing Industries, by Areas and Districts, 1937*

Area and district	Number of wage earners in sample ¹	Indexes (North = 100.0) of—						
		Hours per wage earner per month	Wages per man-hour	Value products per man-hour	Value added per man-hour	Value products minus prime cost ² per man-hour	Earnings (hours × wages)	Electric energy used per man-hour
North.....	3, 182, 527	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
South.....	832, 179	101.0	81.4	95.0	89.3	102.6	82.2	115.1
West.....	147, 228	98.9	104.4	115.2	123.5	142.1	103.3	123.5
Districts within "North":								
New England States.....	499, 612	100.5	99.2	94.3	96.3	92.0	99.7	101.9
Middle Atlantic States.....	1, 110, 213	100.4	99.8	100.0	100.2	100.1	100.2	97.3
East North Central States.....	1, 417, 996	99.5	101.2	101.1	101.2	102.0	100.7	101.7
West North Central States.....	154, 706	99.8	93.5	108.1	98.8	103.5	93.3	100.9
Districts within "South":								
Upper South.....	463, 097	99.8	83.6	95.4	91.7	104.9	83.4	110.0
Lower South.....	305, 733	103.7	78.5	94.3	84.9	98.4	81.4	125.0
Southwest.....	63, 349	103.6	83.7	101.4	96.1	108.0	86.7	111.4

¹ Average for the year.

² For the purpose of this article, the prime cost is defined as the sum of the salaries, wages, and cost of materials, fuel, and purchased electric energy. The item "Value of products minus prime cost" is equivalent, therefore, to the value added by manufacture minus salaries and wages.

A summary of the results of this study is given in table 1. This shows, for example, that wages per hour for 832,179 wage earners in the South averaged 18.6 percent less than hourly wages in the same

¹ More detailed figures by States will be presented in an article entitled "Hourly Earnings in 105 Selected Industries, and for Each State, During 1937," by A. F. Hinrichs and Arthur F. Beal, in the Monthly Labor Review for June 1940.

industries in the North, while the number of hours worked per month averaged exactly 1 percent more than in the same industries in the North. This represents a wage differential of 18.6 percent between the South and the North in 1937, as compared with 15.3 percent in 1935.²

In this connection, it must be remembered that, although the contrast in wages between the South and the North is pronounced, these areas (especially the South) are not strictly homogeneous. For the three districts within the South³ into which it was feasible to subdivide the area (see last three lines of table 1), variation within that area was appreciable.

Man-Hours in Individual Industries

The fundamental data for the North, South, and West upon which this study is based are given in table 2. Figures are shown for the 105 man-hour industries⁴ in each area wherever possible. Although this article is primarily concerned with regional differences in hourly earnings and the number of hours worked, data on value added by manufacture are given in table 2, and indexes on several other items are given in table 1 and other tables which follow.

² See Monthly Labor Review, July 1938: "Geographical Variation in Hours and Wages During 1933 and 1935," table 7, page 139. Although the 1935 study was based upon only 59 industries, an analysis of the 1937 results for the industries covered in 1935 showed no significant difference (18.0 percent as against 18.6 percent) between the smaller and larger lists of industries.

³ In this study, the census classification of States is followed in forming the contrast in broad areas, North, South, and West. The North includes New England, Middle Atlantic States, and the East and West North Central States; the West is taken to include the Mountain and Pacific States, and the South is taken to include the South Atlantic, the East South Central, and the West South Central States. However, the 3 districts within the South as used in this study have been constructed largely with reference to prevailing wage earnings, and are described in detail below:

The specific States comprising the North, as used herein, arranged into 4 groups to show the 4 geographic districts within the North, are: (a) Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut; (b) New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania; (c) Michigan, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Wisconsin; and (d) Minnesota, Iowa, Missouri, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nebraska, and Kansas. Those States comprising the South, arranged into 3 groups to show the "Upper South," "Lower South," and "Southwest" districts, are: (e) Delaware, Maryland, District of Columbia, West Virginia, Virginia, North Carolina, Kentucky, and Tennessee; (f) South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Louisiana; and (g) Oklahoma and Texas. And those comprising the West, with no attempt made to subdivide this area into districts because of sparsity of the data, are Montana, Wyoming, Colorado, New Mexico, Idaho, Utah, Nevada, Arizona, Washington, Oregon, and California.

⁴ There are 116 lines in the table; 1 gives the averages for all industries, 7 cover the industry groups, and 108 the individual industries. In 2 cases (wool carpets and rugs and carpet yarn, and copper and lead smelting and refining) 2 industries, as classified by the census, are tabulated as a unit in order to avoid disclosing data for individual establishments. And 4 industries, as classified by the census, are tabulated in 9 branches, each branch being given the same treatment as an industry; these 4 industries are rayon broad-woven goods, silk broad-woven goods, contract men's and boys' clothing, and motor-vehicle bodies and motor-vehicle parts.

TABLE 2.—Man-Hours per Wage Earner per Month and Wages per Man.

Marginal No.	Industry	Number of wage earners ¹			
		United States	North	South	West
1	105 selected industries ²	4, 161, 934	3, 182, 527	832, 179	147, 228
2	Food and tobacco industries (11).....	314, 301	206, 357	80, 834	27, 110
3	Flour milling.....	20, 660	12, 280	5, 160	3, 220
4	Feeds, prepared.....	11, 759	6, 756	2, 299	2, 704
5	Cereal preparations.....	7, 887	7, 498	171	218
6	Meat packing.....	119, 283	93, 783	15, 390	10, 110
7	Sugar, beet.....	9, 024	2, 743		6, 281
8	Sugar refining, cane.....	14, 024	8, 874	5, 150	
9	Liquors, distilled.....	5, 471	2, 647	2, 497	327
10	Liquors, malt.....	39, 856	31, 469	4, 887	3, 500
11	Cigars.....	50, 442	33, 973	15, 719	750
12	Cigarettes.....	26, 149	1, 386	24, 763	
13	Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff.....	9, 746	4, 948	4, 798	
14	Textile industries (45).....	1, 195, 004	696, 148	487, 710	11, 146
15	Cotton yarn and thread.....	76, 706	17, 356	59, 350	
16	Cotton woven goods.....	318, 283	73, 753	244, 530	
17	Cotton narrow fabrics.....	11, 002	10, 154	848	
18	Dyeing and finishing of cotton yarn.....	5, 358	3, 270	2, 088	
19	Dyeing and finishing of cotton fabric.....	46, 904	27, 511	19, 393	
20	Batting, padding, etc.....	4, 168	3, 517	518	133
21	Processed cotton waste.....	2, 054	1, 253	801	
22	Wool combing.....	3, 252	3, 252		
23	Woolen yarn.....	2, 397	1, 827	570	
24	Worsted yarn.....	15, 478	15, 478		
25	Woolen woven goods.....	58, 109	48, 514	8, 254	1, 341
26	Worsted woven goods.....	68, 443	66, 519	1, 924	
27	Woolen and worsted dyeing and finishing.....	1, 743	1, 743		
28	Recovered wool fiber.....	2, 772	2, 772		
29	Felt goods.....	3, 349	3, 108		241
30	Carpets and rugs, wool, and yarn ³	32, 881	32, 881		
31	Carpets and rugs, paper-fiber and grass.....	788	788		
32	Rayon throwing—commission.....	1, 770	1, 770		
33	Rayon throwing—regular.....	4, 847	3, 733	1, 114	
34	Rayon broad woven goods—commission ⁴	2, 610	2, 610		
35	Rayon broad woven goods—regular ⁴	50, 497	31, 206	19, 291	
36	Rayon narrow fabrics.....	5, 001	4, 293	708	
37	Dyeing, finishing rayon (and silk) yarn.....	1, 100	1, 100		
38	Dyeing, finishing rayon and silk fabric.....	15, 669	15, 127	542	
39	Silk throwing—commission.....	12, 072	11, 034	1, 038	
40	Silk throwing—regular.....	9, 452	8, 834	618	
41	Silk broad woven goods—commission ⁴	2, 179	2, 179		
42	Silk broad woven goods—regular ⁴	12, 752	10, 748	2, 004	
43	Silk narrow fabrics.....	4, 259	3, 987	272	
44	Hosiery.....	125, 958	68, 547	57, 411	
45	Knitted cloth.....	9, 907	8, 294	1, 613	
46	Knitted gloves and mittens.....	3, 182	3, 182		
47	Knitted outerwear—contract factories.....	2, 241	2, 241		
48	Knitted outerwear—regular factories.....	19, 630	16, 298	968	2, 364
49	Knitted underwear.....	36, 028	23, 389	12, 639	
50	Work clothing.....	47, 325	22, 861	20, 973	3, 491
51	Trousers (semidress), wash suits, etc.....	9, 712	5, 195	3, 938	579
52	Leather and sheep-lined clothing.....	2, 948	2, 690		258
53	Shirts, collars, nightwear—contract factories.....	6, 391	5, 663	728	
54	Shirts, collars, nightwear—regular factories.....	40, 905	31, 478	8, 022	505
55	Men's underwear—contract factories.....	1, 424	1, 424		
56	Men's underwear—regular factories.....	6, 410	3, 271	3, 139	
57	Furnishing goods, men's—contract factories.....	456	456		
58	Furnishing goods, men's—regular factories.....	7, 031	6, 079	342	610
59	Men's and boys' clothing not elsewhere classified:				
60	Contract sponging, examining, etc., of material ⁵	725	669	56	
61	Contract factories.....	22, 145	19, 457	2, 417	271
62	Regular factories.....	76, 691	64, 637	10, 701	1, 353

See footnotes at end of table.

Wages and Hours of Labor

1207

Hour in Selected Establishments in 105 Industries, by Region and Industry, 1937

Hours worked per wage earner per month				Average wages per man-hour				Average value added per man-hour				Marginal No.
United States	North	South	West	United States	North	South	West	United States	North	South	West	
161.1	161.5	158.5	166.9	Cents 64.8	Cents 69.1	Cents 47.1	Cents 69.9	\$1.53	\$1.59	\$1.20	\$2.18	
191.9	189.0	204.7	182.7	52.7	56.4	38.8	63.3	2.37	2.48	1.87	2.81	2
189.0	187.5	207.2	177.6	49.5	53.0	32.2	57.5	2.45	2.81	1.65	2.29	3
170.3	169.8	192.4	171.2	65.6	66.6	32.6	60.6	4.13	4.13	1.81	6.13	4
177.9	176.5	185.2	179.1	63.0	65.2	48.1	66.6	1.46	1.48	1.28	1.51	5
195.0	194.2		195.4	53.3	49.9		54.8	1.72	1.33		1.89	6
164.3	167.7	158.4		57.8	67.8	39.5		2.24	2.42	1.91		7
172.2	170.9	173.6	172.3	58.9	67.7	50.0	57.3	3.14	3.87	2.58	1.65	8
168.0	169.8	162.6	159.6	84.7	84.9	74.2	98.0	3.65	3.77	2.76	3.78	9
153.1	148.2	163.7	151.2	37.4	38.4	35.0	48.1	.82	.93	.62	.91	10
152.7	165.7	151.9		50.5	54.2	50.3		4.12	2.95	4.19		11
150.0	149.6	150.3		47.9	55.8	39.8		2.58	3.00	2.15		12
148.1	149.5	147.7		37.9	47.3	35.1		.70	.90	.64		13
154.5	151.4	155.4		41.1	48.1	39.1		.72	.80	.69		14
161.0	160.0	172.9		45.8	46.6	36.6		.89	.90	.73		15
156.2	155.4	157.5		49.6	54.4	42.3		1.05	1.15	.89		16
162.2	163.8	159.9		50.8	56.2	42.8		1.00	.98	1.04		17
161.4	161.0	167.6	147.7	49.5	52.3	29.5	55.4	1.44	1.52	.73	2.28	18
173.0	174.1	171.2		35.7	42.4	25.1		.93	1.15	.57		19
157.5	157.5			57.9	57.9			.93	.93			20
155.2	148.8	175.6		55.1	63.8	31.5		1.02	1.16	.65		21
142.1	142.1			50.9	50.9			.83	.83			22
152.8	151.7	158.2	158.2	55.5	57.3	45.2	55.9	1.04	1.06	.92	.80	23
145.9	145.9	147.0		57.7	58.2	41.7		1.04	1.03	1.17		24
154.8	154.8			56.9	56.9			1.31	1.31			25
168.4	168.4			49.9	49.9			1.00	1.00			26
176.6	176.0		183.9	56.1	56.7		49.2	1.35	1.29		2.08	27
144.2	144.2			60.7	60.7			1.46	1.46			28
173.5	173.5			46.8	46.8			1.18	1.18			29
154.6	154.6			33.7	33.7			.54	.54			30
149.9	147.0	159.6		37.0	39.1	30.4		.71	.78	.48		31
153.7	153.7			38.9	38.9			.55	.55			32
150.8	151.9	149.1		47.0	48.7	44.2		.78	.81	.74		33
162.8	162.4	165.5		43.5	44.9	35.2		.93	.99	.61		34
146.8	146.8			56.5	56.5			1.20	1.20			35
147.7	147.1	164.9		61.4	62.4	37.4		1.07	1.08	.73		36
142.1	141.6	147.5		35.1	35.3	32.3		.53	.53	.50		37
154.6	154.2	159.9		41.0	41.4	36.1		.67	.68	.65		38
153.5	153.5			38.5	38.5			.51	.51			39
157.0	156.7	158.6		43.7	45.5	34.4		.70	.70	.71		40
150.7	150.4	155.2		51.5	52.2	41.6		1.00	1.03	.56		41
150.4	149.5	151.6		50.8	59.6	40.5		.74	.84	.63		42
159.0	157.9	164.6		48.0	50.3	36.5		1.06	1.09	.90		43
139.3	139.3			39.9	39.9			.65	.65			44
146.9	146.9			43.2	43.2			.77	.77			45
154.4	154.0	143.1	161.6	45.0	46.2	28.7	43.4	.93	.91	.54	1.23	46
151.8	147.7	159.4		39.5	42.5	34.4		.77	.85	.63		47
142.5	145.3	140.8	134.8	35.7	39.3	29.4	49.5	.63	.71	.51	.86	48
147.7	146.8	150.7	135.8	33.9	40.1	24.4	44.8	.62	.78	.39	.82	49
138.1	138.3		135.8	56.5	56.0		61.0	.99	.99		1.04	50
131.4	128.1	157.1		33.1	34.2	26.5		.44	.45	.37		51
146.0	145.1	149.4	142.9	36.5	38.7	28.3	49.4	.73	.75	.64	.81	52
133.7	133.7			27.3	27.3			.33	.33			53
149.8	140.8	159.1		28.7	30.4	27.2		.45	.49	.41		54
132.2	132.2			48.2	48.2			.69	.69			55
150.3	150.8	168.5	134.3	45.9	46.6	30.0	49.7	1.06	1.08	.72	1.16	56
168.6	169.3	100.3		85.6	85.7	83.9		1.82	1.83	1.73		57
123.3	121.0	140.8	132.4	60.8	62.7	46.0	73.3	.78	.81	.56	1.06	58
135.5	134.4	142.0	140.6	66.3	69.8	46.9	60.4	1.19	1.25	.91	1.08	59

TABLE 2.—Man-Hours per Wage Earner per Month and Wages per Man-Hour in

Marginal No.	Industry	Number of wage earners			
		United States	North	South	West
63	Chemical industries (15).....	489,439	354,951	102,201	32,287
64	Paper.....	104,112	84,983	11,699	7,430
65	Pulp.....	25,680	12,213	7,913	5,554
66	Rayon and allied products.....	55,098	16,312	38,786	
67	Drugs and medicines.....	21,336	19,175	1,802	359
68	Insecticides, fungicides, household chemicals.....	2,821	2,172	424	225
69	Perfumes, cosmetics, etc.....	9,242	8,541	373	328
70	Soap.....	13,764	12,447	368	949
71	Cleaning and polishing preparations.....	2,852	2,721	77	54
72	Blackings, stains, and dressings.....	1,336	1,231	85	20
73	Petroleum refining.....	79,022	36,330	32,095	10,597
74	Leather tanning—contract factories.....	2,190	2,190		
75	Leather tanning—regular factories.....	45,603	38,083	6,869	651
76	Rubber boots and shoes.....	18,356	18,356		
77	Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	63,290	58,240		5,050
78	Other rubber goods.....	44,137	41,957	1,110	1,070
79	Stone, clay, glass industries (6).....	187,865	133,062	41,634	13,169
80	Cement.....	24,808	15,828	5,803	3,177
81	Lime.....	8,797	5,301	2,812	684
82	Clay products other than pottery.....	46,769	31,335	10,414	5,020
83	Pottery and porcelain.....	28,264	20,366	6,230	1,668
84	Nonclay refractories.....	5,230	5,098		132
85	Glass.....	73,997	55,134	16,375	2,488
86	Nonferrous-metal industries (7).....	153,236	127,337	10,291	15,608
87	Aluminum products.....	23,337	23,016		321
88	Copper and lead smelting and refining ¹	18,550	6,681	2,313	9,556
89	Zinc smelting and refining.....	11,265	7,001	2,611	1,653
90	Scrap smelting and refining.....	4,526	3,863	228	435
91	Nonferrous-metal alloys and products.....	77,694	73,241	3,118	1,335
92	Sheet-metal work.....	17,864	13,535	2,021	2,308
93	Iron and steel and machinery (21).....	1,822,089	1,604,672	109,509	47,908
94	Blast-furnace products.....	22,580	19,711	2,869	
95	Steel works and rolling mills.....	473,215	421,637	39,904	11,674
96	Cast-iron pipe and fittings.....	15,909	4,628	10,566	715
97	Wrought pipe.....	13,635	13,203		432
98	Plumbers' supplies other than pipe, etc.....	23,417	16,163	5,647	1,607
99	Steel barrels, kegs, and drums.....	6,140	5,538	602	
100	Tin cans.....	32,248	20,807	7,476	3,965
101	Stamped metal products; enameling, etc.....	54,840	48,001	5,868	971
102	Wire drawn from purchased rods.....	24,052	23,772		280
103	Wirework not elsewhere classified.....	25,846	23,437	868	1,541
104	Electrical machinery, apparatus, supplies.....	243,513	235,589	4,073	3,851
105	Radios, radio tubes, phonographs.....	46,337	45,831		506
106	Machine tools.....	45,875	45,838		37
107	Machine-tool accessories.....	28,977	28,744	48	185
108	Machinery, not elsewhere classified.....	126,663	104,214	13,847	8,602
109	Machine-shop products.....	89,519	82,486	3,519	3,514
110	Machine repair shops.....	3,787	1,765	1,429	593
111	Engines, turbines, and water wheels.....	28,723	28,085	56	582
112	Refrigerators and ice-making apparatus.....	47,643	45,403	1,351	889
113	Motor-vehicle bodies ²	84,597	79,874	2,606	2,117
114	Motor-vehicle parts and accessories ³	189,071	188,405	89	577
115	Motor-vehicle trailers ⁴	5,179	3,876	675	628
116	Motor vehicles.....	190,323	177,665	8,016	4,642

¹ Average for the year.² Weighted, being computed from aggregates for all industries covered in each area or region.³ Two industries tabulated jointly.⁴ The "broad-woven-goods" industry, as classified, has been tabulated in two branches, "commission" and "regular."

Selected Establishments in 105 Industries, by Region and Industry, 1937—Continued

Hours worked per wage earner per month				Average wages per man-hour				Average value added per man-hour				Marginal No.
United States	North	South	West	United States	North	South	West	United States	North	South	West	
				Cents	Cents	Cents	Cents					
177.8	179.0	179.5	161.9	60.2	60.2	55.1	70.3	\$1.65	\$1.55	\$1.95	\$2.46	63
175.9	183.9	172.4	163.3	58.4	57.3	50.6	73.0	1.65	1.36	1.53	2.53	64
160.7	163.7	159.5		61.4	65.2	59.8		1.64	1.43	1.73		65
168.6	169.0	162.6	177.7	54.1	55.3	40.5	51.4	5.25	5.32	4.99	3.20	66
171.1	170.3	177.0	167.9	52.7	56.8	34.9	47.5	4.05	4.37	2.58	3.86	67
167.5	167.7	164.4	164.3	46.5	46.9	36.6	48.7	4.00	4.12	1.81	3.35	68
166.4	166.5	170.1	163.0	68.6	68.6	58.4	73.1	4.17	4.18	2.87	4.51	69
175.7	175.6	180.2	174.0	56.1	56.8	39.2	43.8	5.09	5.21	2.77	2.41	70
162.3	162.0	165.0	169.8	49.5	51.1	28.8	40.6	3.81	3.96	2.03	2.56	71
155.9	154.0	157.3	158.4	90.4	95.3	84.2	93.0	3.10	2.90	2.87	4.49	72
156.5	156.5			62.1	62.1			1.02	1.02			73
164.4	164.9	166.4	165.8	61.6	63.7	49.7	63.4	1.15	1.17	1.07	1.29	74
153.0	153.0			60.6	60.6			1.10	1.10			75
134.8	134.1		142.9	94.5	95.0		89.3	2.04	2.01		2.33	76
163.8	163.6	167.1	168.3	57.9	58.2	44.4	60.2	1.31	1.30	1.13	1.57	77
												78
165.8	163.1	168.7	173.9	64.0	67.6	52.2	68.1	2.16	2.05	2.25	2.53	79
179.9	182.6	177.3	169.5	45.7	51.0	33.5	54.9	1.03	1.19	.70	1.08	80
170.1	169.2	174.1	166.9	49.3	53.2	36.3	53.1	.96	1.02	.74	1.05	81
169.7	168.6	171.4	176.9	57.3	59.1	51.8	55.8	1.06	1.12	.79	1.26	82
150.8	150.0		180.5	62.9	63.4		49.7	1.47	1.47		1.50	83
156.8	158.0	151.3	169.1	68.4	67.7	70.0	73.9	1.64	1.66	1.50	2.21	84
165.9	165.8		168.0	67.6	67.5		70.7	1.46	1.46		1.54	85
192.1	187.3	202.4	192.9	61.9	64.7	50.1	63.1	2.10	1.75	1.26	2.54	86
170.5	167.6	168.9	185.3	72.8	72.7	74.8	69.9	1.74	1.77	1.55	1.95	87
175.6	176.2	184.5	166.1	56.9	57.5	51.9	54.2	1.65	1.50	2.90	2.31	88
170.8	169.8	195.2	165.4	68.5	68.4	68.4	70.1	1.64	1.61	2.22	1.96	89
171.5	173.5	176.7	155.3	61.9	62.8	49.4	68.0	1.57	1.59	1.38	1.65	90
												91
183.4	183.2	184.6		75.3	77.0	64.0		2.55	2.55	2.56		92
166.0	166.5	163.6	156.4	81.7	82.4	74.2	81.9	1.57	1.58	1.51	1.60	93
158.9	163.9	156.1	167.9	54.2	59.9	50.7	65.8	1.08	1.19	1.03	1.16	94
149.3	148.8		163.7	76.6	76.9		68.4	1.78	1.77		1.97	95
165.3	165.0	166.0	165.6	61.5	62.4	57.9	65.8	1.29	1.30	1.18	1.57	96
165.6	163.1	188.3		59.4	61.6	42.2		1.45	1.45	1.41		97
168.2	169.7	166.1	165.0	56.1	55.7	52.6	64.8	1.72	1.63	1.34	2.92	98
166.9	166.5	169.5	172.4	59.9	61.0	51.1	58.0	1.18	1.20	.98	1.47	99
160.9	160.8		165.6	71.7	71.7		72.0	1.73	1.72		2.37	100
167.6	167.7	181.3	159.0	58.5	59.3	32.4	63.9	1.33	1.33	.77	1.62	101
167.4	167.2	180.5	166.9	69.9	70.2	59.0	65.6	1.92	1.91	2.34	1.95	102
155.4	155.1		177.6	58.2	58.2		56.7	1.36	1.36		1.44	103
193.9	193.9		190.3	71.3	71.3		62.4	1.66	1.66		1.49	104
181.7	181.7	184.1	168.7	79.4	79.4	62.7	79.4	1.63	1.63	1.55	1.30	105
184.0	184.4	186.5	175.1	67.5	67.9	58.5	77.6	1.82	1.81	1.82	1.91	106
173.3	173.0	179.0	173.5	69.1	69.5	57.8	71.1	1.74	1.74	1.76	1.66	107
181.1	184.9	185.7	158.4	66.5	67.6	61.3	77.2	1.31	1.28	1.27	1.54	108
174.8	175.0	162.4	169.7	74.5	74.4	58.7	83.7	1.54	1.53	1.28	1.99	109
164.7	163.6	192.8	182.3	72.6	73.8	46.1	59.6	1.71	1.74	1.29	1.37	110
152.4	152.1	157.1	155.7	88.4	89.2	73.2	81.5	1.54	1.53	1.61	1.77	111
155.2	155.2	180.6	158.5	82.3	82.4	56.0	67.5	1.53	1.53	1.82	1.62	112
170.8	167.0	196.4	166.2	61.0	64.2	43.2	63.7	1.22	1.17	1.11	1.73	113
149.9	150.5	139.1	148.5	90.9	91.3	83.3	85.7	2.05	1.99	2.83	2.91	114
												115
												116

¹ A branch of the "contract-factory" industry.

² The "motor-vehicle bodies and motor-vehicle parts" industry, as classified, has been tabulated in three branches, "bodies", "parts and accessories," and "trailers."

All 105 industries for which the man-hour data are available for 1937, were present in the broad area classified as the North. For the South, it was possible to publish data for only 80 industries⁵, and for the West only 63. In all but 7 of the 105 industries, the number of wage earners in the North was larger than the number in the South or the West, these being cigarettes, cotton yarn and thread, cotton woven goods, rayon and allied products, and cast-iron pipe in the South, and beet-sugar refining, and copper and lead smelting in the West.

The national average for hourly earnings reported by the 24,411 selected manufacturing establishments in the 105 industries of the 1937 Census of Manufactures was 64.8 cents, and man-hours per month averaged 161.1 per wage earner. Results for individual industries, however, deviated appreciably from these national averages for all the selected industries, and, as shown in the study for 1935, the range in hourly earnings was relatively much larger than in the number of hours worked. Average earnings ranged from a low of 27.3 cents in the contract men's underwear industry to 94.5 cents in the rubber-tire industry, the latter being over 3 times the former. About a dozen industries averaged less than 40 cents and several were above 80 cents. On the other hand, the average number of hours worked per month ranged from a low of 123.3 in contract men's suits and overcoats to 193.9 for machine tools, only a relatively small number of industries being less than 140 hours or more than 172.

Analysis on the basis of national averages, however, is not adequate, for national averages conceal significant underlying geographical differences. Average earnings in both the cotton yarn and thread and the "regular" throwing of rayon, for example, were, on the basis of the national average, about the same, between 37 and 38 cents. Nevertheless, in both the North and in the South, wages in the cotton-yarn industry were appreciably higher than in "regular" rayon throwing, the difference in the North being 8.2 cents and in the South 4.7 cents. The similarity of the national averages for these two industries arises from the fact that over three-fourths of the cotton-yarn sample was located in the South, whereas in regular rayon throwing over three-fourths of the wage earners were in the North.

⁵ In several industries there were no establishments in the sample for the South or the West, while in others there were 1 or 2 establishments (occasionally a few more) in the South or in the West for which the results could not be published without revealing data for individual establishments. Through necessity, therefore, these latter establishments were used in combination with other (northern) plants, and the resultant averages are presented as though all were located in the North; for these industries, therefore, no sample is published for the South or the West, and the industries do not enter the South-North or the West-North comparison of wages and hours through the use of industries represented in both areas being compared. Unfortunately, however, this causes the total number of wage earners shown in the second column of table 2 to be a trifle larger than the number actually employed in the North, and the number for the South and West a trifle too small.

On the other hand, comparisons of this nature should not be permitted to conceal the fact that there are definitely high-wage and low-wage industries. Regional differences within industries confirm this. Petroleum refining, for example, is a relatively high-wage industry and the cigar industry is consistently low. For the former industry, wages even in the South averaged 84.2 cents an hour, while in the latter industry they were only 38.4 cents in the North.

Another important aspect of the problem is how frequently wage differentials are favorable to the North and how often to the South. Throughout the list of industries in table 2, wages quite generally were higher in the North than in the South. That this undoubtedly is the rule is shown by the fact that this is the situation in 79 of the 82 industries and branches of industries in table 2 for which figures are given for the South; and the reverse is true in only two industries, glass and zinc smelting, while in a third, nonferrous-metal alloys and products, wages were the same in the two areas.

Wages in the North, as has been stated, averaged 69.1 cents an hour for all the man-hour industries, and in the South only 47.8 cents. This is likely to be construed as a differential of 30.8 percent between the South and the North for similar types of work, when in reality it is not. The relatively high average for the North is due partly to higher earnings than in the South for the same types of work, but in large measure to the greater concentration of high-wage industries in the North, such as motor vehicles and iron and steel, and to the greater concentration of certain relatively low-wage industries, such as cotton yarn and cotton woven goods, in the South.

In this connection, consider for some of the important industries the relatives expressing the average wage in the South as a percentage of that in the North. In the cotton-woven-goods industry, for example, which, on the basis of the number of wage earners covered, represents over a fourth of the entire man-hour sample of the South, the wage differential was only 18.7 percent; for cotton yarn and thread, it was 25.8 percent; for steel works and rolling mills with nearly 40,000 wage earners in the South, the wage differential was only 10.0 percent; for the chemical production of rayon, only 8.3 percent, and 11.6 percent for petroleum refining. In these industries, and especially in steel, rayon, and petroleum refining, the technological processes are perhaps so uniform throughout that an industry average may be expected to provide a fairly accurate measure of a wage differential for similar types of work. On the other hand, this is not true for hosiery, with an apparent wage differential of 32.0 percent, because the product in the North is not strictly comparable with that in the South. Much of the product in the North is full-fashioned silk hosiery, whereas a larger portion of the cotton and seamless hosiery is included in the South than in the North.

The industry relatives expressing the average wage in an industry in the South to that in the North varies from industry to industry. A single summary figure is needed which will show, as nearly as it is possible to obtain, a differential for similar types of work, and which will eliminate the effect of concentration of high-wage and low-wage industries in contrasting areas. This has been done by weighting the relative for each industry by the number of wage earners in the southern sample of the industry. The results for the various items tabulated for the South are those given in table 1, line 2. And those for the West, given in line 3 of the table, were computed by weighting each relative comparing the West with the North by the number of wage earners in the western sample of the industry.⁶

Table 1 states that, as nearly as can be measured by the data at hand, wage earnings in the South were 18.6 percent less than in the same 80 industries in the North, while in the West they were 4.4 percent higher than in the same 63 industries in the North. On the other hand the number of hours worked were 1.0 percent higher in the South and 1.1 percent lower in the West than in the North. When the indexes of hours and earnings were combined to give indexes of weekly or monthly earnings (table 1), the South was 17.8 percent less than the North, while the West was 3.3 percent higher than in the North. The specific industries by which these compari-

⁶ Various systems of weighting were discussed in the article in the Monthly Labor Review, July 1938, p. 138, footnote 20. By using the number of wage earners in the southern man-hour sample for each industry in computing the weighted averages for the South relative to the North, and similarly the Western wage earners for the West, the weights would be more representative of competitive wage differences than would be the number of wage earners in each industry in the North. For example, referring to data for 1937, the differential of 8.8 in the motor-vehicle industry with 8,016 wage earners covered in the South and 177,665 in the North is much less important, especially in the South, than is the differential of 18.7 in cotton woven goods with 244,530 wage earners in the southern sample. This system of weighting tends to measure in average terms the competitive impact of industries located in the South, or the West, on the remainder of the country. The use of the weight of an industry in the South or the West, as has been done, has the further advantage of assigning a light weight at those points in the entire sample where it is small and where the wage differential may be based on inadequate data. Thus there is no reason to disregard entirely a reported regional differential in wages in industries with small southern samples, such as in cereal preparations, cotton narrow fabrics, dyeing and finishing of rayon and silk fabric, "regular" silk throwing, silk narrow fabrics, knitted outerwear regular factories, perfumes and cosmetics, soap, wirework, and machine-tool accessories. All these industries are of considerable importance in the North but with fewer than 1,000 wage earners in the sample in the South. If the regional differentials were to be weighted by the total number of wage earners in each industry in the United States or in the more industrialized North, it would be necessary to discard arbitrarily certain industries. For example, it is apparent that the fact that 48 wage earners in machine-tool accessories in the South happen to receive 21.0 percent less per hour than 28,744 wage earners in the North is of almost no significance to the general picture. In such a case it is obvious that a wage differential in an industry of this class should be disregarded, or included with so slight a weight as will not seriously affect the resultant average. On the other hand, a decision to disregard other industries is not so easy. For example, should a wage differential of 21.5 percent in cotton narrow fabrics be disregarded because of the fact that only 848 wage earners are covered in the southern sample out of a total of 11,002? A decision to include or exclude such a case should ordinarily be avoided, but would have to be faced were northern weights adopted. Such a decision is properly evaded or compromised by using southern (or western) weights that have the characteristics of decreasing as one approaches a marginal decision, and of virtually disappearing where the decision to exclude would be obvious.

sons are made, together with the weight of each in the equation, can, of course, be obtained from table 2. Briefly, over half of the wage earners in the southern sample were in the textile industries, while in the West less than 8 percent were in these textile industries; in the West over 40 percent of the wage earners were in metal industries (both ferrous and nonferrous), and another 40 percent were in the food and chemical industries.

Value added by manufacture per man-hour and electric energy consumed per man-hour present a quite different picture for the South and West than is shown by wages (table 1). In the South, the value added per hour was 10.7 percent less than in the North in contrast to a wage differential of 18.6 percent; and the electric energy consumption was 15.1 percent higher in the South than in the North. In other words, a smaller adverse differential in value added per hour than in wages per hour was accompanied by a sizable positive differential or increase in electric-energy consumption per hour. And in the West, a wage level 4.4 percent higher than in the North was accompanied by a level in value added per hour and electric-energy consumption per hour 23.5 percent higher than in the North.

Although the wage differential for the South as based upon all 80 industries for which a southern sample could be published was 18.6 percent, there was considerable lack of uniformity among the several industry groups covered. For the food industries, for example, as shown in table 3, it was 28.3 percent, whereas for the nonferrous-metal group it was only 8.7 percent. For the important textile group, it was 22.2 percent. Only two groups—foods and textiles—had indexes lower than the average (81.4) for the area, while the indexes above the average covered the remaining 5 groups, viz., tobacco, chemical, stone-clay-glass, nonferrous-metal, and iron and steel and machinery.

The indexes on wages showed much less variation among the several industry groups in the West than in the South. In the West the range was from 99.4 for nonferrous metals to 107.8 for foods (including a few wage earners in tobacco).

The larger electricity consumption per hour shown by the average for all industries in the South (115.1 relative to the North) was most outstanding in the textile group with an index of 124.6. In marked contrast to this, however, are 3 groups showing lower consumption of energy per hour than in the North, viz., foods with an index of only 83.5, tobacco with 96.3, and stone-clay-glass with 83.3.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of Hours, Wages per Man-Hour, and Other Items for 1935 and 1937, for South and West Relative to North, by Industry Groups

Area, industry group, and year	Number of wage earner in sample ¹	Indexes (North=100.0) of—						
		Hours per wage earners per month	Wages per man-hour	Value products per man-hour	Value added per man-hour	Value products minus prime cost per man-hour	Earnings (hours × wages)	Electric energy used per man-hour
<i>South</i>								
All man-hour industries in South:								
1937.....	832, 179	101.0	81.4	95.0	89.3	102.6	82.2	115.1
1937 comparable with 1935.....	698, 384	101.0	82.0	95.1	90.3	102.9	82.8	116.4
1935 ²	571, 204	98.2	84.6	95.7	87.7	91.6	83.1	(³)
Food industries:								
1937.....	35, 554	102.8	71.7	74.8	78.6	83.7	73.7	83.5
1935 ⁴	22, 722	103.7	73.3	80.8	90.4	106.5	76.0	(⁵)
Tobacco industries:								
1937.....	45, 280	99.2	89.9	70.9	108.4	111.6	89.2	96.3
1935.....	40, 781	96.7	93.5	72.0	121.4	127.5	90.4	(⁶)
Textile industries:								
1937.....	487, 710	101.8	77.8	93.8	82.3	96.9	79.2	124.6
1937 comparable with 1935.....	413, 670	101.9	78.6	93.4	82.4	94.7	80.1	127.3
1935.....	344, 261	96.6	81.7	96.2	77.9	76.6	78.9	(⁷)
Chemical industries:								
1937.....	102, 201	99.3	88.7	111.4	110.2	132.0	88.1	112.1
1935.....	77, 189	103.1	89.5	108.6	105.4	124.2	92.3	(⁸)
Stone, clay, and glass industries:								
1937.....	41, 634	99.6	86.0	86.0	83.5	78.5	85.7	83.3
1935 ⁹	32, 108	98.7	91.6	86.7	84.7	76.2	90.4	(¹⁰)
Nonferrous metal industries: ⁶ 1937.....	10, 291	107.0	91.3	106.4	101.5	114.2	97.7	111.6
Ferrous metal and machinery:								
1937.....	109, 509	99.5	87.5	104.4	98.0	110.7	87.1	106.2
1937 comparable with 1935.....	73, 002	99.0	88.3	108.3	102.6	119.5	87.4	102.1
1935 ⁷	54, 143	99.7	89.9	103.0	100.1	116.0	89.6	(¹¹)
<i>West</i>								
All man-hour industries in West:								
1937.....	147, 228	98.9	104.4	115.2	123.5	142.1	103.3	123.5
1937 comparable with 1935.....	103, 717	98.7	104.4	115.7	124.1	143.6	103.0	114.1
1935 ²	81, 772	100.5	103.9	114.8	119.6	135.0	104.4	(³)
Food and tobacco industries:								
1937.....	27, 110	99.1	107.8	103.1	109.9	115.1	106.8	109.2
1935 ⁴	20, 099	100.7	106.8	103.2	108.6	111.7	107.5	(⁵)
Textile industries:								
1937.....	11, 146	99.0	107.5	105.3	113.3	122.7	106.4	114.9
1937 comparable with 1935.....	4, 079	104.2	95.1	97.2	117.6	157.5	99.1	92.6
1935.....	4, 067	101.6	97.0	100.5	105.4	116.8	98.6	(⁶)
Chemical industries:								
1937.....	32, 287	97.9	106.9	126.9	149.0	185.7	104.7	132.5
1935.....	24, 825	101.0	105.3	128.1	139.6	165.2	106.4	(⁷)
Stone, clay, and glass industries:								
1937.....	13, 169	102.8	101.3	112.7	114.1	125.5	104.1	110.1
1935.....	8, 263	105.6	103.2	112.6	117.6	131.3	109.0	(⁸)
Nonferrous metal industries: ⁹ 1937.....	15, 608	101.1	99.4	98.3	132.7	163.3	100.5	214.6
Ferrous metal and machinery:								
1937.....	47, 908	97.6	102.5	122.5	115.9	130.3	100.0	101.5
1937 comparable with 1935.....	32, 569	96.2	102.3	115.1	110.3	120.6	98.4	104.8
1935 ⁷	24, 518	98.0	101.5	114.1	111.3	127.7	99.5	(¹¹)

¹ Average for the year.² Revised by the elimination of 4 industries not covered in the man-hour tabulations for 1937. The manufactured-ice industry was dropped from the list by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in order to devote the effort of tabulation to better advantage by covering other industries with more wage earners; the diminutive sand-lime-brick industry was canvassed by the Census Bureau by means of a questionnaire without the man-hour inquiry; and the electric and steam railroad-repair-shop industries were abandoned by the Census Bureau as manufacturing industries.³ Not tabulated for all man-hour industries in 1935.⁴ Revised by the elimination of the manufactured-ice industry.⁵ Revised by the elimination of the diminutive sand-lime-brick industry.⁶ No nonferrous-metal industries were covered in the man-hour tabulations for 1935.⁷ Revised by the elimination of the electric and steam railroad-repair-shop industries.

Comparison of Data for 1935 and 1937

Indexes are also given in table 3 showing results for the 1935 census covering a smaller list of industries,⁷ and comparative 1937 data for the same field of industries covered by the 1935 indexes. The comparative wage indexes (1937 data covering the 1935 field of industries) for every industry group in the South were lower, relative to North, than the 1935 indexes. In view of the fact, however, that actual wages rose in the North between 1935 and 1937, this means that wages in the South rose less in the industries covered than in these industries in the North.

Wherever 1937 indexes and those for "1937 comparable with 1935" are given, there usually is little or no important difference between them. The 1935 list of industries, therefore, was able to provide indexes of this character about as reliable as the larger list of 1937. There was only one appreciable difference in the group indexes on wages. In the textile group in the West, the group index for "1937 comparable with 1935" was only 95.1 (practically the same as the 97.0 obtained in 1935) whereas the entire list of industries for 1937, including men's clothing, gave an index of 107.5. This is due to the addition of men's clothing to the list; the men's clothing industries more than doubled the number of wage earners in the textile sample in the West, and most of the wage relatives for the men's clothing industries were considerably above 100.0, whereas the relatives for the former list of textile industries represented in the West were, with only one unimportant exception, below 100.0.

Variations Within the "North" and the "South"

The foregoing discussion has dealt with the three large areas, North, South, and West, each being treated as a unit. It is also desirable to obtain measures of variation within each of these areas wherever possible. This section presents data for four districts or groups of States into which it has been possible to subdivide the North, and for three districts within the South.⁸ No subdivision of the West into districts was deemed feasible.

The sample for each district is defined, by industries, in table 4, which gives the number of wage earners in the sample that could be published for each district in each industry.⁹ For several of the dis-

⁷ Although the 1935 man-hour sample cover 59 industries, results for a southern sample could be published at that time for only 48 industries, and a western sample for only 31 industries. Four of these (one did not have a published sample in the West), not repeated in 1937 as explained in footnote 2 of table 3, have been eliminated to provide a field of industries for which comparable 1937 data could be published.

⁸ The States included in each of the 7 districts within the North and the South, as used in this article, are listed in footnote 3, p. 1205.

⁹ As in the case of the three major areas, whenever results for 1 or 2 establishments in a district could not be published without disclosing data for individual plants, they were included with other plants in the same major area, and all were necessarily considered as situated in the district where the major portion was located.

tricts, a number of the industries are not represented. From the basic data on wages, etc. (not published, for lack of space), relatives have been computed for each industry in each district having a sample; then these relatives have been combined into a weighted index that seeks to eliminate the influence of the location of high-wage and low-wage industries.¹⁰ Then resultant indexes have been computed, based upon all covered industries for which a sample could be published in each district, as shown by the wage earners given in table 4. These resultant indexes have been given in table 1.

The indexes on wages for these seven districts, as shown in table 1, indicate that (1) based upon the results for the entire list of industries covered, there is little variation among the three eastern districts of the North, viz., New England, Middle Atlantic States, and East North Central States, although the index (on wages) for the East North Central States is 1.4 percent higher than any other; (2) the wage structure for the West North Central States seems to be on a definitely lower level (for the same type of work) than that in the other districts of the North;¹¹ and (3) there is considerable variation between the wage level for the Lower South and that for the other two districts of the South.

It should be remembered that these figures are not actual wage averages but indexes showing the wage level in each district relative to the wages in the same industries in the entire northern sample. The actual average wage for all man-hour establishments actually situated in each of the seven districts was as follows: New England, 58.8 cents; Middle Atlantic, 66.3 cents; East North Central, 75.6 cents; West North Central, 61.8 cents; upper south, 49.8 cents; Lower South, 41.4 cents; and Southwest (highly influenced by the petroleum-refining industry), 62.0 cents.¹² Differences between these figures giving actual average wages as paid in each district are due largely to the presence of high-wage industries in some districts and to low-wage industries in others. As previously pointed out, they do not refer to the same kinds of work.

Although there apparently is little or no variation in wages among the three eastern districts of the North, as shown by the picture for all covered industries combined, significant variation nevertheless

¹⁰ The method of computing the index for the district is that already described for the areas, South and West, viz., the average wage for an industry in a subregion or district is divided by the average for that industry in the entire "North." The relative for wages (and other items) for the industry is then multiplied by the number of wage earners in the sample for that industry in the district. The resulting index, therefore, relates wages (or hours, etc.) in the industries of the district or subregion to the average wages of those same industries in the entire North.

¹¹ This is substantiated more or less uniformly by the several industries represented in the district, and by indexes for the various industry groups. These industry-group indexes for the several districts have not been published, partly because in the cases of some districts and industry groups the base was so narrow that the indexes would approximate the differences for only 1 or 2 industries.

¹² Averages for the 3 major areas, given on p. 1204, are as follows: North, 69.1 cents; South, 47.8 cents; and West, 69.7 cents.

does exist among the several industries. One group of industries may favor one district while another group favors another district. In a number of cases of individual industries, there is evidence of a decided tendency to higher wages in the centers where an industry is concentrated, with lower wages in the peripheral areas. Thus, much the highest average wage in the rubber-tire industry is found in the East North Central States. This is also true in a number of other industries concentrated in that district, such as pottery, machine-tool accessories, and the various branches of the motor-vehicle industries. In the flour-milling industry, hourly earnings were much higher in the West North Central States than in the East North Central States, a fact all the more important because of the generally lower wage level in the former district than in the latter. In several industries, the highest wages are found in the Middle Atlantic States, notably radios, aluminum and its products, copper and lead smelting and refining, the dyeing and finishing of rayon and silk yarn and fabric, contract manufacture of men's and boys' suits and overcoats, and malt liquors. And, finally, a number of industries with concentration in the New England States show the highest wages in that district, such as most of the wool industries, and regular weaving of rayon broad goods.

Expressing this in more general terms, and contrasting wages in the Middle Atlantic States with those in the East North Central States, influence due to concentration undoubtedly seems to be present. Of 30 textile industries or branches represented in both the Middle Atlantic and East North Central districts, wages in 20 were higher in the Middle Atlantic States than in the East North Central States. And, of the 23 ferrous-metal and machinery industries or branches in both districts, wages in 17 were higher in the East North Central States than in the Middle Atlantic States.

In order to place emphasis still further upon concentration, consider only the 43 industries (or branches) for which the number of wage earners in a district of the North is at least twice the number covered in any other district of the North. Using the industries just as listed, 25 showed the highest average wage in the district having concentration of wage earners. Classifying these 43 industries as textile and non-textile, 13 out of 16 non-textile industries showed the highest average wage in the district having concentration of wage earners, while only 12 out of 27 textiles did this.

When the relatives of wages in a given industry in a district of the North to average wages in that industry throughout the North are studied, it appears that there is no characteristic wage pattern distinguishing New England, the Middle Atlantic States, and the East North Central States. The West North Central States, as previously pointed out, appear in general to have a wage level below that of the

North as a whole. Thus, with 84 industries covered in New England, wages in 32 were above the corresponding average for the North as a whole; for the Middle Atlantic States, 49 out of 105 industries; and for the East North Central States, 45 out of 87 industries. But for the West North Central States, only 8 out of 60 industries shown for the district paid average wages higher than the general northern average of the respective industries.

Variation in wages among the several districts within the North, as shown by the final indexes for all industries in table 1, are, except the West North Central States, quite small. In the three districts of the North other than the West North Central States, the range in indexes is from 99.2 to 101.2, indicating that the lowest wage in the three districts was paid in New England and the highest in the East North Central States. This range of 2 percent is so small, however, that it has little or no significance. For the West North Central States, however, the index shows a general wage difference of 6.5 percent below the average for the North as a whole.

And, finally, relative to the North, variation in hours among the several districts of the North, as shown by the indexes in table 1, are, on the whole, quite small. The range in hours indexes was from 99.5 in the East North Central States to 100.5 in the New England States, too small to have much, if any, significance.

In the South, it has been possible, as previously stated, to publish samples for the entire South as a unit, in the cases of 80 man-hour industries. Of these, 77 were represented in the upper South, 51 in the lower South, and 27 in the Southwest. The number of wage earners in each industry in each district is given in table 4.

The indexes on hours for the several districts of the South (table 1) do not show much deviation from those for the North. The range in indexes within the South, each index being relative to the entire North, is from 99.8 for the upper South, to 103.7 for the lower South; this variation is only 3.9 percent and is considerably less than the range in wages.

The wage indexes for these two districts relative to the same industries in the North were 83.6 for the upper South and 78.5 for the lower South, the latter being 6.1 percent below the former. The most outstanding fact about the wage structure of these two districts is the extremely low level in the food industries, especially in the lower South. The industry-group index for the food industries (excluding tobacco) in the upper South was 74.4, while that for the lower South was only 58.7. Chemicals, on the other hand, averaged 89.1 percent of North in the upper South (representing mostly the chemical production of rayon) and 86.5 in the lower South (representing, in this case, 3 industries about equally, paper, pulp, and petroleum refining); in the Southwest, the index for this group was 89.4 and represented little more than petroleum refining.

TABLE 4.—Average Number of Wage Earners Employed by Selected Establishments in 105 Industries, by Geographic Districts and Industries, for 1937

Industry	North				South		
	New England	Middle Atlantic	East North Central	West North Central	Upper South	Lower South	South-west
105 selected industries.....	499,612	1,110,213	1,417,996	154,706	463,097	305,733	63,349
Food and tobacco industries (11).....	6,380	69,333	76,112	54,532	47,733	21,648	11,453
Flour milling.....	62	2,245	3,417	6,556	2,414	277	2,469
Feeds, prepared.....	494	2,729	2,231	1,302	812	893	594
Cereal preparations.....	—	1,103	3,977	2,418	89	82	—
Meat packing.....	2,786	13,737	39,842	37,418	6,111	2,725	6,554
Sugar, beet.....	—	—	1,644	1,099	—	—	—
Sugar refining, cane.....	—	8,874	—	—	—	5,150	—
Liquors, distilled.....	91	636	1,920	—	2,497	—	—
Liquors, malt.....	1,532	10,993	13,481	5,463	2,754	297	1,836
Cigars.....	1,389	26,546	5,762	276	3,495	12,224	—
Cigarettes.....	—	1,386	—	—	24,763	—	—
Tobacco (chewing and smoking) and snuff.....	26	1,084	3,838	—	4,798	—	—
Textile industries (45).....	270,991	316,060	88,485	20,612	249,055	230,040	8,615
Cotton yarn and thread.....	14,549	2,046	761	—	35,724	23,626	—
Cotton woven goods.....	64,269	8,115	1,369	—	81,615	157,024	5,891
Cotton narrow fabrics.....	6,622	2,898	462	172	848	—	—
Dyeing and finishing of cotton yarn.....	932	1,980	358	—	1,713	375	—
Dyeing and finishing of cotton fabric.....	19,533	6,715	887	376	10,438	8,955	—
Batting, padding, etc.....	344	921	2,252	—	299	219	—
Processed cotton waste.....	407	380	382	84	—	801	—
Wool combing.....	3,252	—	—	—	—	—	—
Woolen yarn.....	1,149	678	—	—	570	—	—
Worsted yarn.....	9,815	4,181	1,482	—	—	—	—
Woolen woven goods.....	33,715	8,971	5,051	777	4,538	3,716	—
Worsted woven goods.....	48,687	17,832	—	—	1,924	—	—
Woolen and worsted dyeing and finishing.....	681	997	65	—	—	—	—
Recovered wool fiber.....	1,314	939	519	—	—	—	—
Felt goods.....	793	1,238	1,077	—	—	—	—
Carpets and rugs, wool, and yarn ¹	4,661	26,014	2,206	—	—	—	—
Carpets and rugs, paper-fiber and grass.....	—	111	677	—	—	—	—
Rayon throwing—commission.....	—	1,770	—	—	—	—	—
Rayon throwing—regular.....	447	3,286	—	—	1,114	—	—
Rayon broad woven goods—commission ²	493	2,117	—	—	—	—	—
Rayon broad woven goods—regular ²	19,130	12,076	—	—	13,259	6,032	—
Rayon narrow fabrics.....	879	2,983	431	—	544	164	—
Dyeing and finishing of rayon (and silk) yarn.....	—	1,066	34	—	—	—	—
Dyeing and finishing of rayon and silk fabric.....	3,822	11,305	—	—	542	—	—
Silk throwing—commission.....	—	11,034	—	—	1,038	—	—
Silk throwing—regular.....	3,311	4,252	1,271	—	618	—	—
Silk broad woven goods—commission ²	661	1,518	—	—	—	—	—
Silk broad woven goods—regular ²	3,543	7,205	—	—	2,004	—	—
Silk narrow fabrics.....	—	3,987	—	—	272	—	—
Hosiery.....	4,036	46,242	15,813	2,456	45,316	12,095	—
Knitted cloth.....	2,334	4,913	1,047	—	1,516	97	—
Knitted gloves and mittens.....	—	3,182	—	—	—	—	—
Knitted outerwear—contract factories.....	208	2,033	—	—	—	—	—
Knitted outerwear—regular factories.....	2,782	9,321	3,910	285	968	—	—
Knitted underwear.....	3,131	14,070	3,502	2,686	10,205	2,434	—
Work clothing.....	1,690	6,927	9,288	4,956	12,794	5,601	2,578
Trousers (semidress), wash suits, etc.....	640	1,895	1,783	877	1,750	2,188	—
Leather and sheep-lined clothing.....	704	699	192	1,095	—	—	—
Shirts, collars, nightwear—contract factories.....	650	5,013	—	—	728	—	—
Shirts, collars, nightwear—regular factories.....	5,086	19,650	3,709	3,033	4,376	4,546	—
Men's underwear—contract factories.....	—	1,424	—	—	—	—	—
Men's underwear—regular factories.....	372	1,129	1,770	—	2,625	514	—
Furnishing goods, men's—contract factories.....	—	456	—	—	—	—	—
Furnishing goods, men's—regular factories.....	1,140	2,860	1,272	798	196	—	146
Men's and boys' clothing not elsewhere classified:	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Contract sponging, examining, etc., of material ³	—	566	103	—	56	—	—
Contract factories.....	474	17,031	1,709	243	2,417	—	—
Regular factories.....	4,735	32,025	25,103	2,774	9,048	1,653	—

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 4.—Average Number of Wage Earners Employed by Selected Establishments in 105 Industries, by Geographic Districts and Industries, for 1937—Continued

Industry	North				South		
	New England	Middle Atlantic	East North Central	West North Central	Upper South	Lower South	South-west
Chemical industries (15).....	70,606	118,766	153,480	12,009	60,037	16,433	25,771
Paper.....	22,692	24,506	36,111	1,674	6,485	5,214
Pulp.....	4,721	3,043	3,849	600	3,108	4,805
Rayon and allied products.....	1,747	13,142	1,423	38,786
Drugs and medicines.....	1,550	7,808	7,644	2,173	1,465	189	148
Insecticides, fungicides, household chemicals.....	205	1,154	650	163	285	139
Perfumes, cosmetics, etc.....	418	5,642	1,800	681	149	130	94
Soap.....	1,500	4,460	4,935	1,552	368
Cleaning and polishing preparations.....	240	961	1,279	241	77
Blackings, stains, and dressings.....	414	348	469	85
Petroleum refining.....	943	17,837	13,655	3,895	2,072	5,134	25,499
Leather tanning—contract factories.....	892	1,158	140
Leather tanning—regular factories.....	8,647	15,734	13,520	182	6,128	741
Rubber boots and shoes.....	12,946	5,410
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	2,238	6,550	49,452
Other rubber goods.....	11,453	16,423	13,143	938	1,029	81
Stone, clay, glass industries (6).....	1,645	59,357	62,271	9,789	29,094	7,258	5,260
Cement.....	7,069	5,012	3,747	2,296	1,533	1,974
Lime.....	587	1,940	2,047	727	2,094	479	289
Clay products other than pottery.....	872	12,168	13,202	5,093	5,412	3,284	1,718
Pottery and porcelain.....	186	8,803	11,155	222	6,129	101
Nonclay refractories.....	3,628	1,470
Glass.....	25,749	29,385	13,163	1,861	1,331
Nonferrous-metal industries (7).....	26,016	56,048	41,638	3,635	6,096	942	3,253
Aluminum products.....	555	18,427	4,034
Copper and lead smelting and refining ¹	6,082	599	2,313
Zinc smelting and refining.....	7,001	2,611
Scrap smelting and refining.....	60	1,470	2,333	228
Nonferrous-metal alloys and products.....	24,379	19,351	28,259	1,252	2,550	180	388
Sheet-metal work.....	1,022	3,717	7,012	1,784	1,005	762	254
Iron and steel and machinery (21).....	123,974	490,649	996,010	54,039	71,082	29,412	9,015
Blast-furnace products.....	8,969	10,114	628	1,038	1,831
Steel works and rolling mills.....	4,363	192,157	217,863	7,254	26,521	13,383
Cast-iron pipe and fittings.....	3,473	885	270	2,675	7,891
Wrought pipe.....	6,183	7,020
Plumbers' supplies other than pipe, etc.....	1,354	4,914	9,461	434	5,647
Steel barrels, kegs, and drums.....	1,717	2,738	1,083	344	258
Tin cans.....	712	8,632	10,430	1,033	5,521	1,955
Stamped metal products; enameling, etc.....	4,660	9,823	31,986	1,532	5,760	108
Wire drawn from purchased rods.....	6,503	7,422	9,472	375
Wirework not elsewhere classified.....	2,607	6,121	13,776	933	847	21
Electrical machinery, apparatus, supplies.....	44,132	81,341	99,793	10,323	3,392	437	264
Radios, radio tubes, phonographs.....	4,302	26,062	15,404	63
Machine tools.....	15,177	5,949	24,203	509
Machine-tool accessories.....	6,738	3,712	18,112	182	48
Machinery, not elsewhere classified.....	13,676	36,429	48,669	5,440	5,715	2,895	5,207
Machine-shop products.....	17,140	24,085	38,554	2,707	2,434	612	473
Machine-repair shops.....	209	493	688	375	546	471	412
Engines, turbines, and water wheels.....	455	11,064	15,533	1,033	56
Refrigerators and ice-making apparatus.....	198	9,065	32,537	3,603	897	454
Motor-vehicle bodies ²	662	10,148	65,716	3,348	1,642	845	119
Motor-vehicle parts and accessories ³	1,086	14,468	172,263	588	89
Motor-vehicle trailers ⁴	97	3,588	191	294	193	188
Motor vehicles.....	18,325	147,205	12,135	8,016

¹ 2 Industries tabulated jointly.² The broad-woven-goods industry, as classified, has been tabulated in 2 branches, "commission" and "regular."³ A branch of the "contract-factory" industry.⁴ The "motor-vehicle bodies and motor-vehicle parts" industry, as classified, has been tabulated in 3 branches, "bodies," "parts and accessories," and "trailers."

The industry structure of the districts in the South is quite important. In the upper South nearly 54 percent of the wage earners are engaged in textile industries and less than 17 percent in metal industries (both ferrous and nonferrous), while in the lower South 75 percent of the covered wage earners are employed in the textile industries and 10 percent in the metal industries.

In the Southwest district, consisting of only Oklahoma and Texas, the general wage index was 83.7 relative to the North, apparently indicating that wages in this district were about on a par with those for the upper South. This index, however, is higher than should be expected and is largely due to the petroleum industry. Only 14 percent of the wage earners reported for the Southwest district were engaged in the textile industries, while over 40 percent were in the petroleum-refining industry and one-seventh in the metal industries (in which a goodly number of the wage earners were making or repairing oil-well machinery and supplies). Of 24 industries other than petroleum refining represented in both the upper South and the Southwest districts, wages in the upper South were higher in 16 industries than in the Southwest, while in only 8 industries was the reverse the case. In the important cotton-woven-goods industry of the South with 5,891 wage earners in the reported sample in the Southwest, wages in the Southwest district were only 74 percent of the average paid in the upper South. If petroleum refining were eliminated, the wage index for the Southwest, relative to the North, would become 79.8, a figure only slightly above the over-all index of 78.5 for the lower South. In this case the presence of a high-wage industry, petroleum refining, with an average wage for the entire South only 11.6 percent below that for the North, and with most of the southern sample situated in the Southwest district, concealed the fact that industry by industry wages are less than in the upper South.

VARIATIONS FROM 1935 TO 1937

Comparative indexes for 1935 and 1937 are given in table 5 for each of the seven districts within the North and the South. The 1935 results have been revised by the elimination of four industries not repeated in the man-hour tabulation for 1937. For the four districts in the North, little or no change has occurred in wages or hours relative to the North between 1935 and 1937. In other words, each district in the North carried its former relationship to the whole area. The only point of deviation worthy of remark is in connection with the wage index for the West North Central States. The larger list of industries used in 1937 over that used in 1935 apparently caused the wage index for that district to drop from 95.2 to 93.5, a change of only 1.8 percent, so small as to be practically without significance or

assurance. However, in view of the fact that actual hourly wages, as shown by the two man-hour samples, rose about 5 cents an hour between 1935 and 1937, this decrease in the index relative to the entire North means merely that the wages in this district rose less than did the average for the whole area.

In the southern districts, however, the changes have been a trifle larger and possess more significance. The number of hours worked seems to have risen perceptibly between 1935 and 1937, especially in the lower South and in the Southwest. In the lower South, the index on hours rose from 97.2 percent of North in 1935 to 103.0 in 1937, as based upon the list of industries covered by the 1935 index; and the corresponding indexes for the Southwest were 100.4 and 104.3. The increase in the lower South was 6.0 percent, and in the Southwest 3.9 percent. In the upper South, the change was relatively small, from 98.5 to 99.2, or only 0.7 percent.

Hourly wages in the South suffered as the number of hours (relative to the North) rose. In the lower South, the wage index (relative to the wages in the North) fell from 81.7 in 1935 to 78.3 in 1937, as based upon the 1935 list of industries. In the Southwest, the index on wages dropped from 88.4 to 83.3. The decrease in the index for the lower South was 4.2 percent, while that for the Southwest was 5.8 percent. In the upper South, the change was from an index of 85.9 to 84.6, or only 1.5 percent. However, here also, as actual hourly wages in each of these districts rose several cents between 1935 and 1937, these decreases in wage indexes (relative to wages each year in the North) mean that the wages in each of these several southern districts rose less than did wages in the same industries in the North.

Comparing hours and wages jointly, it is seen that in the upper South hours between 1935 and 1937 rose 0.7 percent relative to the average for the North and hourly wages rose 1.5 percent less than did wages in the 77 industries in the North; in the lower South, hours rose 6.0 percent relative to the North and hourly wages rose 4.2 percent less than did wages in these 51 industries in the North; and finally, in the Southwest hours rose 3.9 percent relative to the North and hourly wages rose 5.8 percent less than did wages in these 27 industries in the North.

These changes in wages and hours should be interpreted in connection with the fact that the decision on the Schechter case regarding the National Recovery Administration was announced late in May 1935. Although there were some downward revisions in wages in some industries and establishments following that decision, on the whole changes were small and code wages continued to prevail. In the latter part of 1936 and the early months of 1937 wage increases were widespread.

TABLE 5.—Indexes of Hours, Wages per Man-Hour, and Other Items, Comparative of 1937 With 1935, by Areas and Districts

Area, district, and year	Number of wage earners in sample ¹	Indexes (North = 100.0) of—						
		Hours per wage earner per month	Wages per man-hour	Value products per man-hour	Value added per man-hour	Value products minus prime cost per man-hour	Earnings (hours × wages)	Electric energy used per man-hour
North:								
1937	3, 182, 527	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1937 comparable with 1935	2, 254, 032	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1935 ²	1, 897, 487	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	(a)
South:								
1937	832, 179	101.0	81.4	95.0	89.3	102.6	82.2	115.1
1937 comparable with 1935	698, 384	101.0	82.0	95.1	90.3	102.9	82.8	116.4
1935 ²	571, 204	98.2	84.6	95.7	87.7	91.6	83.1	(a)
West:								
1937	147, 228	98.9	104.4	115.2	123.5	142.1	103.3	123.5
1937 comparable with 1935	103, 717	98.7	104.4	115.7	124.1	143.6	103.0	114.1
1935 ²	81, 772	100.5	103.9	114.8	119.6	135.0	104.4	(a)
Districts within "North":								
New England States:								
1937	499, 612	100.5	99.2	94.3	96.3	92.0	99.7	101.9
1937 comparable with 1935	361, 456	100.3	99.6	94.6	96.8	91.8	99.9	102.6
1935 ²	333, 279	100.4	99.5	94.6	95.5	90.0	99.9	(a)
Middle Atlantic States:								
1937	1, 110, 213	100.4	99.8	100.0	100.2	100.1	100.2	97.3
1937 comparable with 1935	735, 689	100.4	99.0	99.6	99.7	100.5	99.4	91.9
1935 ²	629, 375	98.4	99.6	99.3	98.6	95.6	98.0	(a)
East North Central States:								
1937	1, 417, 996	99.5	101.2	101.1	101.2	102.0	100.7	101.7
1937 comparable with 1935	1, 050, 182	99.6	101.4	100.8	101.1	101.3	101.0	104.9
1935 ²	857, 332	101.1	100.8	101.9	102.7	106.7	101.9	(a)
West North Central States:								
1937	154, 706	99.8	93.5	108.1	98.8	103.5	93.3	100.9
1937 comparable with 1935	106, 705	99.5	95.2	113.4	101.1	106.7	94.7	105.3
1935 ²	77, 501	99.7	95.3	107.1	100.5	105.8	95.0	(a)
Districts within "South":								
Upper South:								
1937	463, 097	99.8	83.6	95.4	91.7	104.9	83.4	110.0
1937 comparable with 1935	376, 173	99.2	84.6	95.0	93.2	104.6	83.9	109.2
1935 ²	310, 998	98.5	85.9	93.1	91.5	96.1	84.6	(a)
Lower South:								
1937	305, 733	103.7	78.5	94.3	84.9	98.4	81.4	125.0
1937 comparable with 1935	269, 742	103.0	78.3	94.2	85.0	98.8	80.6	126.8
1935 ²	217, 040	97.2	81.7	98.5	80.8	83.5	79.4	(a)
Southwest:								
1937	63, 349	103.6	83.7	101.4	96.1	108.0	86.7	111.4
1937 comparable with 1935	52, 469	104.3	83.3	101.8	98.3	112.8	86.9	115.3
1935 ²	43, 166	100.4	88.4	100.5	94.1	100.1	88.8	(a)

¹ Average for the year.² Revised by the elimination of 4 industries not covered in the man-hour tabulations for 1937; see also footnote 2 on table 3.³ Not tabulated for all man-hour industries in 1935.

PERSONAL-SERVICE EXPENSE IN RELATION TO TOTAL FEDERAL EXPENDITURES ¹

DURING the year ending June 30, 1939, Federal Government expenditures amounted to \$9,268,000,000. Of this total, \$1,353,000,000 or 14.6 percent was expended for personal services and \$7,915,000,000 or 85.4 percent was used for other expenses. Personal-service expenditures for all activities except national defense represented in total about one-twelfth (8.3 percent) of all Government expenditures for the year. This was revealed by a study made jointly by the Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Civil Service Commission.

"Personal-service expense" as used in this article refers to salaries paid to persons performing governmental functions. Such items as allowances for living quarters, subsistence, and traveling expenses constitute an important item of expense in some agencies, particularly in the military services. These items, however, are not here included in personal-service expenditures except in cases where they are treated as deductions from salary (quarters, subsistence, and laundry deductions in Veterans' facilities and Public Health Service hospitals). Compensation of administrative personnel of the relief agencies is included in personal-service expenditures, but payments to relief (project) workers are not considered personal-service costs, since they are not performing a governmental function but are in a sense being subsidized by the Government. Retirement pensions paid to former military and civil employees are not considered personal-service expenditures.

Analyses of Federal expenditures have frequently been made in terms of the departments of the Government making the expenditures or by functions performed. In this study the analysis was carried one step farther, and the expenditures for personal services were segregated from other items.² The analysis was made in detail for the fiscal year 1939, the latest year for which complete expenditure figures are available. Total expenditures are shown for several preceding years for comparative purposes and a comparison with estimated expenditures in the 1940 fiscal year (without allowance for deficiency appropriations) is also made.

The largest item of cost in 1939 was for unemployment relief, which constituted about 29 percent of total expenditures. (However, a significant curtailment of the appropriations was made for 1939-40.)

¹ This report was prepared by Herman Byer, chief of the Bureau of Labor Statistics' Division of Construction and Public Employment, and Archie Edwards, chief of the Statistical Division of the Civil Service Commission.

² Data on total expenditures were taken from "The Budget of the United States Government for the Fiscal Year ending June 30, 1941" (table No. 11). Personal-service expenditures were obtained for the executive branch of the Government from monthly reports of pay rolls issued by the Civil Service Commission and for legislative, judicial, and military establishments from monthly reports of the Department of Labor.

National defense expenditures in the War and Navy Departments and the Veterans' Administration represented 17 percent of all Government expenditures (but attention is directed to the substantial expansion occurring in 1940 and 1941). The expenditures shown for national defense do not include expenditures of many Federal agencies in which a considerable part of the activities is directly concerned with this function. Examples of these are the Panama Canal, Federal Bureau of Investigation, Civil Aeronautics Authority, National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics, and Maritime Commission. If the portions of the expenditures of these agencies properly chargeable to national defense were included in that category, the outlay for defense would represent a somewhat higher percentage of all expenditures than is shown in the tables. Other functions for which significant proportions of the total expenditures were made in 1939 were: Debt, refunds, and retirement items, amounting to 12 percent; public works, 12 percent; the security programs, 10 percent; and the Agricultural Adjustment program, 8 percent (see table 1).

TABLE 1.—*Summary of Expenditures of the United States Government, Year Ended June 30, 1939*¹

Activity	Expenditures (in millions of dollars)			Percentage distribution		
	Total	Personal services ²	Other than personal services	Total	Personal services ²	Other than personal services
All activities.....	9,268	1,353	7,915	100.0	14.6	85.4
National defense.....	1,601	583	1,018	17.3	6.3	11.0
Debt, refunds, and retirement items.....	1,136	-----	1,136	12.2	-----	12.2
Public works.....	1,111	134	977	12.0	1.4	10.6
Unemployment relief.....	2,676	121	2,555	28.9	1.3	27.6
Security programs.....	960	19	941	10.4	.2	10.2
Agricultural Adjustment program.....	782	32	750	8.4	.4	8.0
Loans, subscriptions to stock, etc.....	231	-----	231	2.5	-----	2.5
Legislative branch.....	38	27	11	.4	.3	.1
Judicial branch.....	10	7	3	.1	.1	(³)
Other civil establishments.....	723	430	293	7.8	4.6	3.2

¹ Excludes trust accounts and Post Office expenditures paid from postal revenues.

² Does not include allowances for living quarters, subsistence, traveling expenses, or retirement pay, except where such items are treated as a deduction from salary.

³ Less than 0.05 percent.

When the \$1,353,000,000 personal-service expenditures made from Federal appropriations in 1939 are classified, as in table 2, it is evident that over two-fifths of the total (\$583,000,000) was used for national defense purposes (and the proportion will be higher in 1940 and again in 1941 as a result of expanding national defense appropriations). Another fifth of the expenditures for personal services was used for employees on the public works, unemployment relief (administrative

only), and security programs. Two and one-half percent of the personal-service expenditures were made in the legislative and judicial branches of the Government. All other civil departments and establishments accounted in total for about one-third (34 percent) of the personal-service expenditures.

TABLE 2.—*Personal-Service Expenditures of U. S. Government, Excluding Items Paid From Trust-Account and Postal Revenues, Year Ended June 30, 1939*

Function	Expenditures (in millions of dollars)	Percentage distribution	Function	Expenditures (in millions of dollars)	Percentage distribution
All expenditures.....	11,352.8	100.0	Security programs.....	18.7	1.4
National defense.....	583.0	43.1	Social Security Board.....	16.0	1.2
Military service of War and Navy Departments and Coast Guard.....	522.2	38.6	Railroad Retirement Board.....	2.7	.2
Veterans' Administration.....	60.8	4.5	Agricultural Adjustment program ¹	32.3	2.4
Public works.....	133.9	9.9	Post Office Department ⁶	29.1	2.1
Bureau of Public Roads.....	6.4	.5	Legislative branch.....	26.7	2.0
Tennessee Valley Authority.....	21.8	1.6	Judicial branch.....	6.6	.5
Bureau of Reclamation.....	10.0	.7	Other civil establishments.....	401.2	29.6
Corps of Engineers (nonmilitary activity) ²	69.4	5.2	Treasury Department ⁷	133.7	9.9
Public buildings branch of Procurement Division ³	5.5	.4	Department of Agriculture ⁷	88.6	6.5
Public Works Administration.....	20.8	1.5	Department of the Interior ⁷	66.0	4.9
Unemployment relief (administrative only).....	121.3	9.0	Department of Commerce.....	24.7	1.8
Direct and work relief ⁴	69.3	5.1	Department of Justice.....	21.3	1.6
Civilian Conservation Corps.....	52.0	3.9	Department of Labor.....	13.9	1.0
			Department of State.....	12.1	.9
			Panama Canal.....	13.8	1.0
			All others.....	27.1	2.0

¹ Excluded from this total were personal-service payments not made from Government appropriations, as follows: Post-office employees, paid from postal revenues, \$551,900,000; and employees of agencies using trust-account funds, \$44,600,000. Also excluded were allowances for subsistence, living quarters, traveling expenses, and retirement pay, except where such items are treated as a deduction from salary.

² Engaged in river and harbor and flood-control activities.

³ Exclusive of Custodian Service.

⁴ Includes only administrative pay-roll expenditures of the Works Progress Administration, the National Youth Administration, and the Farm Security Administration. Relief (project) workers are not considered as employed persons; therefore, pay-roll expenditures for them are not included as personal-service expenditures. Emergency Relief expenditures of other departments and agencies are not included in this category but are carried in the totals shown for the respective establishments.

⁵ Includes the Agricultural Adjustment Administration and the Soil Conservation Service.

⁶ Represents the proportion of Post Office expenditures for personal services paid from Government appropriations.

⁷ Does not include expenditures carried under other headings.

A word of caution regarding conclusions based on the 1939 figures must be given: From appropriations already made, it is clear that the proportion of expenditures for national defense purposes will be somewhat higher in 1940 and much higher in 1941 than in the 1939 fiscal year. On the other hand, the proportion of expenditures for unemployment relief will be considerably lower in 1940 and, on the basis of preliminary estimates, still lower in 1941 than in the 1939 fiscal year. These shifts will bring a reversal in the expenditure standing for these functions, placing the total for national defense well above that for unemployment relief.

TABLE 3.—Comparison of Actual Federal Expenditures in 1938-39, With Estimated Expenditures in 1939-40

Activity	Expenditures (in millions of dollars)		Percentage distribution	
	1939 (actual)	1940 (estimated) ¹	1939	1940
All activities.....	9,268	9,736	100.0	100.0
National defense.....	1,601	1,998	17.3	20.5
Debt, refunds, and retirement items.....	1,136	1,476	12.2	15.2
Public works.....	1,111	1,182	12.0	12.2
Unemployment relief.....	2,676	1,912	28.9	19.6
Security programs.....	960	1,047	10.4	10.8
Agricultural Adjustment program.....	782	937	8.4	9.6
Loans, subscriptions to stock, etc.....	231	263	2.5	2.7
Legislative branch.....	38	38	.4	.4
Judicial branch.....	10	10	.1	.1
Other civil establishments.....	723	873	7.8	8.9

¹ Estimate of the Bureau of the Budget; excludes deficiency appropriations.TABLE 4.—Functional Distribution of Expenditures of U. S. Government, Fiscal Years 1932 to 1939 ¹

Function	Expenditures (in millions of dollars)							
	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
All expenditures.....	4,948	4,325	6,371	7,583	9,069	8,546	7,691	9,268
National defense—total.....	1,637	1,482	1,048	1,267	3,228	2,023	1,552	1,601
Military service of War and Navy Departments, and Coast Guard.....	664	633	494	663	880	895	980	1,056
Veterans' pensions and benefits.....	973	849	554	604	2,348	1,128	572	545
Debt, refund, and retirement items.....	1,183	1,246	1,216	1,489	1,248	1,074	1,262	1,136
Interest on public debt.....	599	689	757	821	749	866	926	940
Debt retirement.....	413	461	360	573	403	104	65	58
Refunds of receipts.....	101	70	64	77	54	56	100	68
Government employees' retirement funds.....	21	21	21	21	41	47	73	75
Miscellaneous financial items.....	49	5	14	3	1	1	98	5
Public works.....	499	472	625	766	914	1,102	880	1,111
Public highways.....	210	178	268	317	244	351	237	205
Tennessee Valley Authority.....			11	36	49	42	42	41
Reclamation.....	26	25	25	41	50	52	65	79
Rivers and harbors improvement.....	55	51	76	133	150	148	98	75
Flood control.....	28	34	41	31	36	45	61	80
Public buildings.....	86	106	79	58	68	76	77	51
Grants to public bodies.....			19	49	234	273	190	379
Other.....	94	78	106	101	83	115	110	201
Unemployment relief.....		360	1,853	2,363	2,372	2,527	1,996	2,676
Direct and work relief.....		351	1,521	1,927	1,886	2,141	1,670	2,386
Civilian Conservation Corps.....		9	332	436	486	386	326	290
Security programs.....					42	471	834	960
Social Security Board.....					42	465	689	850
Railroad Retirement Board.....						6	145	110
Agricultural Adjustment program.....			289	712	533	527	362	782
Loans, subscriptions to stock, etc.....	873	181	882	424	71	150	104	231
Legislative, judicial, and other civil establishments.....	756	584	458	562	661	672	701	771
Treasury Department.....	136	112	97	120	142	151	148	151
Department of Agriculture.....	92	64	61	69	116	146	132	151
Post Office Department (deficiency only).....	203	117	64	64	86	39	47	40
All others.....	325	291	236	309	317	336	374	429

¹ Data on expenditures taken from "The Budget of the United States Government for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1941" (table No. 11) and excludes trust accounts and Post Office expenditures paid from postal revenues.² Credit item, deduct.

TABLE 4.—Functional Distribution of Expenditures of U. S. Government, Fiscal Years 1932 to 1939—Continued

Function	Percentage distribution							
	1932	1933	1934	1935	1936	1937	1938	1939
All expenditures.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
National defense—total.....	33.1	34.3	16.5	16.7	35.5	23.7	20.2	17.3
Military service of War and Navy Departments, and Coast Guard.....	13.4	14.6	7.8	8.7	9.7	10.5	12.7	11.4
Veterans' pensions and benefits.....	19.7	19.7	8.7	8.0	25.8	13.2	7.5	5.9
Debt, refund, and retirement items.....	23.9	28.8	19.1	19.6	13.8	12.6	16.4	12.2
Interest on public debt.....	12.1	15.9	11.9	10.8	8.3	10.1	12.0	10.2
Debt retirement.....	8.4	10.7	5.7	7.5	4.4	1.2	.8	.6
Refunds of receipts.....	2.0	1.6	1.0	1.0	.6	.7	1.3	.7
Government employees' retirement funds.....	.4	.5	.3	.3	.5	.6	1.0	.8
Miscellaneous financial items.....	1.0	.1	.2	(²)	(²)	(²)	1.3	1.1
Public works.....	10.1	10.9	9.8	10.1	10.1	12.9	11.4	12.0
Public highways.....	4.3	4.1	4.2	4.2	2.7	4.1	3.1	2.2
Tennessee Valley Authority.....			.2	.5	.5	.5	.5	.4
Reclamation.....	.5	.6	.4	.5	.6	.6	.8	.9
Rivers and harbors, improvement.....	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.8	1.7	1.7	1.3	.8
Flood control.....	.6	.8	.6	.4	.4	.5	.8	.9
Public buildings.....	1.7	2.4	1.2	.8	.7	.9	1.0	.5
Grants to public bodies.....			.3	.6	2.6	3.3	2.5	4.1
Other.....	1.9	1.8	1.7	1.3	.9	1.3	1.4	2.2
Unemployment relief.....		8.3	29.1	31.2	26.1	29.5	26.0	28.9
Direct and work relief.....		8.1	23.9	25.4	20.8	25.0	21.7	25.8
Civilian Conservation Corps.....		.2	5.2	5.8	5.3	4.5	4.3	3.1
Security programs.....					.5	5.5	10.8	10.4
Social Security Board.....					.5	5.4	9.0	9.2
Railroad Retirement Board.....						.1	1.8	1.2
Agricultural Adjustment program.....			4.5	9.4	5.9	6.2	4.7	8.4
Loans, subscriptions to stock, etc.....	17.6	4.2	13.8	5.6	.8	1.7	1.4	2.5
Legislative, judicial, and other civil establishments.....	15.3	13.5	7.2	7.4	7.3	7.9	9.1	8.3
Treasury Department.....	2.7	2.6	1.5	1.6	1.6	1.8	1.9	1.6
Department of Agriculture.....	1.9	1.5	1.0	.9	1.3	1.7	1.7	1.6
Post Office Department (deficiency only).....	4.1	2.7	1.0	.8	.9	.5	.6	.4
All others.....	6.6	6.7	3.7	4.1	3.5	3.9	4.9	4.7

² Less than 0.05 percent.

WAGE INCREASE FOR DOCK WORKERS AT CRISTOBAL, CANAL ZONE

EXTRA rates are hereafter to be paid for overtime to all hourly dock workers of the Panama Railroad at Cristobal.¹ Time and a half is to be paid for work in excess of 8 hours in any 24-hour weekday beginning at 7 a. m., and for work above 8 hours on Sundays and holidays. Wage rates for regular time vary from 22 to 28 cents per hour.

It is announced that employment is to be given to 300 additional able-bodied stevedores at Cristobal, to facilitate the handling of the greatly increased tonnage of cargo. It is estimated that the roll of eligible workers at Cristobal will exceed 2,000, and that from this list can be drawn a sufficient number of workers to maintain normal operations at the docks, regardless of the demands made upon dock facilities.

¹ Data are from report of Ashley B. Sowell, commercial attaché at the American embassy, Panama, March 29, 1940.

EARNINGS IN CIGAR AND CIGARETTE INDUSTRY IN MANILA, 1939

THE daily earnings of 3,620 males in 13 leading cigar and cigarette factories in Manila in 1939 averaged 1.10 pesos,¹ and of 4,937 females, 0.81 peso. The average earnings per day of males in different occupations in these factories ranged from 0.40 peso for strippers to 3.23 pesos for foremen; of females, from 0.51 peso for ring fixers to 1.58 pesos for forewomen. Earnings in various other occupations for 1938 and 1939 are reported in the following table, taken from a recent official report.²

Average Daily Earnings in 13 Cigar and Cigarette Factories in Manila, 1938 and 1939

[Peso=about 50 cents in U. S. currency]

Occupation	Average daily earnings (in pesos)			
	1939		1938	
	Males	Females	Males	Females
Average for all occupations ¹	1.10	0.81	1.31	1.44
Appraisers	1.25	.56	1.44	.51
Apprentices	.60		.40	.58
Blacksmiths ²	1.80			
Box decorators	.98	1.41	1.35	1.03
Carpenters ²	2.50		1.86	
Chauffeurs or drivers	1.33		1.38	
Cigar makers	.95	.97	1.35	1.72
Cigarette makers	.95	.63	.75	.88
Classifiers	.91	.72	.99	.70
Cleaners		.56	.60	.60
Cutters	.63	.61		
Dryers	1.30		1.22	
Electricians ²	2.80		2.96	
Foremen ²	3.23	1.58	1.83	1.58
Laborers (common) ²	1.02	.55	1.09	.58
Lathemen ²	1.70			
Machine tenders	1.23	.53	.97	.88
Machinists ²	2.18		3.90	
Mechanics ²	2.27		2.20	
Messengers ²	1.03		1.09	
Moisteners	.77	.80	1.00	
Packers	1.31	.91	1.33	1.36
Painters ²	1.33			
Plumbers ²	2.00			
Porters ²	1.20	1.11	1.31	1.16
Pressers	1.33			
Printers ²				
Revisers	1.46	1.04		
Ring fixers	.81	.51		.71
Shippers	1.46			
Stem removers	.55	.52		.42
Stick removers	1.22	.74	1.52	1.17
Stockers	1.21			
Strappers	1.25	.60		
Strippers	.40	.64	.64	.66
Timekeepers ²	1.50			
Warehousemen ²	2.48		2.22	
Watchmen ²	1.62		1.52	
Weighers	1.15		1.09	.67
Wrappers	1.60	.53	1.14	1.07

¹ Includes other labor also.

² Time rate.

¹ Peso=about 50 cents in U. S. currency.

² Philippines. Department of Labor. Labor Bulletin (Manila). December 1939.

ADJUSTING WAGES TO COST OF LIVING IN AUSTRALIA

THE practice of establishing a so-called "basic" wage, taking into consideration cost of living, has been in effect in Australia for many years. A recent decision, by the Commonwealth Court of Conciliation and Arbitration,¹ reduces the lag between the time when the quarterly index number of cost of living is computed and wage adjustments based on the index are made.

Formerly, awards and agreements in effect provided that adjustments in the basic wage should be made quarterly, in the months of March, June, September and December, in accordance with changes in cost of living as shown by the index for the preceding quarter. Under that procedure, for example, wage adjustments as of December 1939 took into account only the changes in cost of living for the quarter ending in September 1939. Employee representatives maintained that under existing conditions, with prices rising rapidly, wage increases lagged from 2 to 5 months behind price rises.

By the terms of the unanimous court decision reached on December 18, 1939, it was provided that wage adjustments should be made as soon as possible after the close of the quarter; and that existing awards and agreements should be varied to provide that quarterly adjustment of the basic wage should become effective 1 month earlier, that is in February, May, August, and November.



REGULATION OF WAGES AND PRICES IN BOHEMIA AND MORAVIA

CONQUEST of a country by a foreign invader results, as a rule, in lowering the standard of living of the conquered country, and, not seldom, even in famine and pestilence.

The former Czechoslovakian Republic was a relatively low-wage and low-price country before its destruction by the German army, but the strongly organized trade-unions in Czechoslovakia were fighting with some success to raise the standard of living, as was revealed by the collective agreements concluded, and from time to time renewed, between the trade-unions and the employers' associations.

Under German control the labor situation was changed greatly. Employers were prohibited from raising wages without the permission of the German authorities. At the same time the Germans promised to introduce a "ceiling" for prices; that is, the dealers would be prohibited from raising prices without the permission of the German authorities.²

Five labor-regulation councils were created under the direct jurisdiction of the German Governor of Bohemia and Moravia (Provinces

¹ Data are from report of Thomas M. Wilson, American consul general at Sydney, Australia, dated February 28, 1940.

² Reichsarbeitsblatt, Berlin, December 25, 1939, pt. II.

of the former Czechoslovakian Republic). These labor councils perform practically the same functions as the so-called labor trustees in Germany.

The check on prices failed to materialize, and the cost of living, as reported in the foreign press, increased by about 40 percent over the cost of living in former Czechoslovakia. However, Walter Schroeder, German Government adviser at Prague, claims in the *Reichsarbeitsblatt* that the cost of the prime necessities of life has risen by only 20-25 percent in Bohemia and Moravia since 1938, and that the prices of commodities of higher quality have risen by some 50 percent, while prices of gas and electricity have remained unchanged. He disputes the correctness of the official published statistics relating to a rise in the cost of living in Bohemia and Moravia, on the ground that official statistics for such a large area as the named Provinces may contain many errors; he does not, however, cite any errors in his report.

Whatever was the exact percentage of the rise of prices, the fact is that they did increase so greatly as to cause a wave of strikes, demonstrations, and unrest among the Czech workers. When repressive measures failed to check them, the labor councils, with the consent of the Governor, agreed to permit employers to increase money wages, according to the following schedule: In the building trades, 6 to 18 percent; in textiles, lumber, woodworking, furniture, food and confectionery, quarrying, and agriculture, 15 percent; in forestry, 20 percent; in the iron and metal industry, 5 percent (and overtime pay, 12 percent); in coal mining, 5 to 12½ percent; in the brick industry, 5 percent; in the pottery industry, 6 to 10 percent; in the dairy industry, 10 percent; and in the leather and paper industries, 15 to 20 percent. Salaries of industrial employees were raised 10 percent and certain increases of money wages were also permitted in commercial establishments.

On an average, the total increase in money wages amounted to about 10 percent in all industries and trades, which took care of only one half, if not one-quarter, of the rise in the cost of living.



TREND OF INDUSTRIAL WAGES IN DENMARK, 1937-39

THE following figures show the rise of money and real wages of industrial workers in Denmark in 1937-39.¹

	Average hourly wage (in øre ²)	Index of real wages (1935=100)
1937.....	137	98
1938.....	143	101
1939 (May).....	146	103

¹ Data are from Denmark, Statistiske Departement, *Statistiske Efterretninger* (Copenhagen), February 27, 1940.

² Exchange rate of krone (100 øre) = 19.3 cents.

Labor Turn-Over

LABOR TURN-OVER IN MANUFACTURING, FEBRUARY 1940

A NOMINAL increase in the lay-off rate in manufacturing industries in February as compared with January was indicated by labor turn-over reports received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Lay-offs were reported at the rate of 2.67 per 100 employees in February, compared with 2.55 in January and 1.87 a year ago. Primarily responsible for the increase in the lay-off rate were the aircraft industry in which the rate increased from 1.89 to 4.20 per 100 employees; automobile parts, from 4.59 to 7.46; iron and steel, from 1.56 to 3.53; slaughtering and meat packing, from 4.39 to 8.72; and woolen and worsted goods, from 3.64 to 7.87. Despite the sharp increase in the lay-off rate for plants manufacturing aircraft, the net increase of accessions over separations was 0.54. The quit rate for all manufacturing decreased from 0.63 to 0.62 for every 100 employees on the pay roll. The discharge rate rose from 0.14 to 0.16, but the miscellaneous separation rate remained unchanged, at 0.11. Total separations increased from 3.43 to 3.56. Workers were hired at the rate of 2.98 per 100 employees; this compares with 3.74 in January and 3.06 in February 1939. The accession rate for February included a rehire rate of 1.26 and new-hire rate of 1.72 per 100 employees. The rate for rehiring was substantially lower than the January rate. There was also a slight decline in the rate of new hirings.

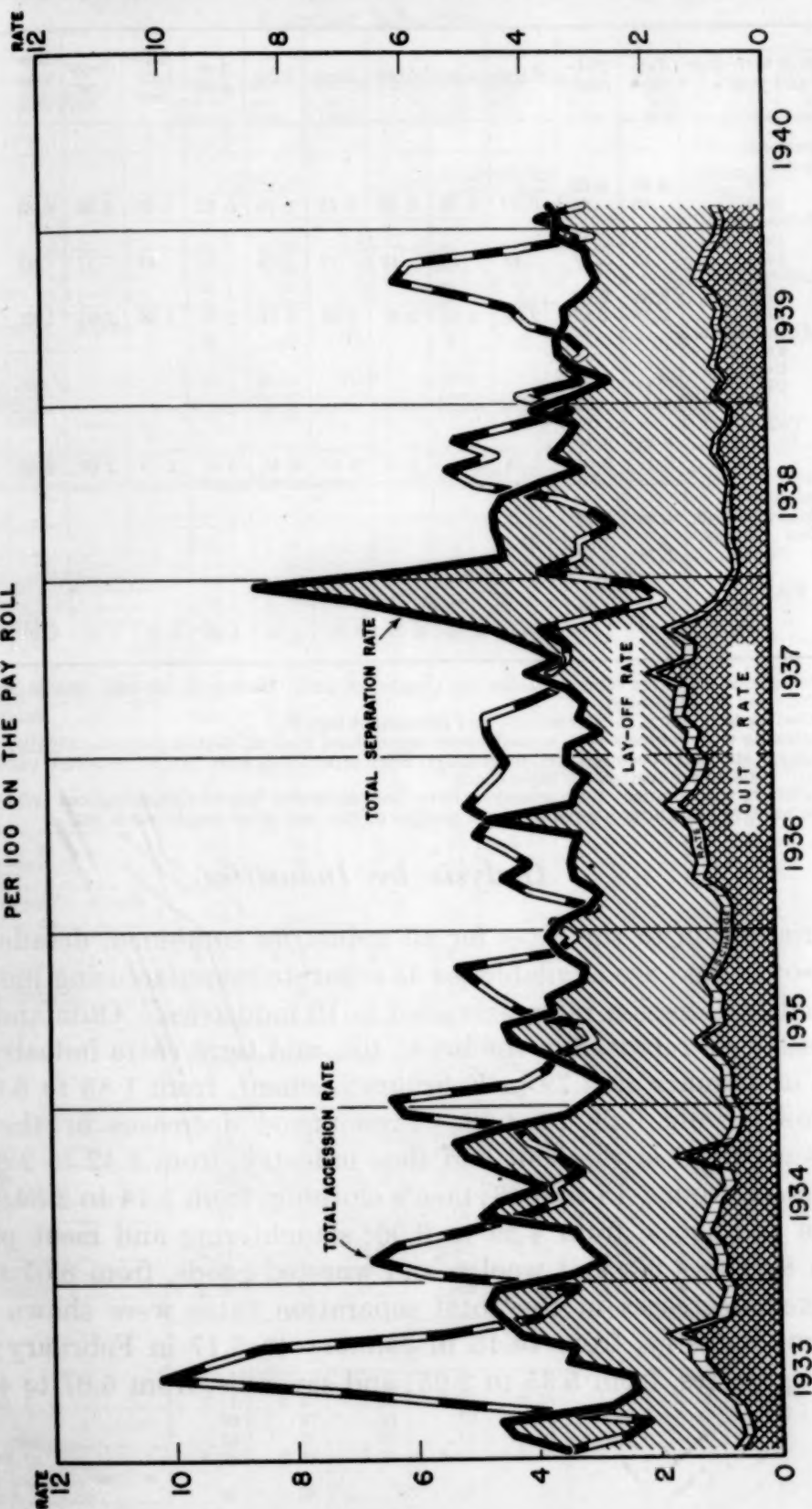
All Manufacturing

The Bureau of Labor Statistics' survey of labor turn-over covers approximately 5,600 representative manufacturing establishments, which in February, employed more than 2,500,000 workers. The rates represent the number of changes in personnel per 100 employees on the pay rolls during the month.

The rates shown in table 1 are compiled from reports received from representative plants in 144 industries. In the 33 industries for which separate rates are published (see table 2), reports were received from representative plants employing at least 25 percent of the workers in each industry. Turn-over rates for 29 States in which the number of reporting firms is sufficiently large to justify the publication of State figures are given in table 3.

LABOR TURN-OVER RATES IN MANUFACTURING

PER 100 ON THE PAY ROLL



UNITED STATES BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

TABLE 1.—Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates in Representative Factories in 144 Industries¹

Class of turn-over and year	January	February	March	April	May	June	July	August	September	October	November	December	Average
Separations:													
Quits:													
1940.....	0.63	0.62											
1939.....	.85	.64	0.82	0.76	0.68	0.73	0.70	0.82	1.07	0.93	0.83	0.69	0.79
Discharges:													
1940.....	.14	.16											
1939.....	.10	.10	.13	.10	.13	.12	.12	.14	.14	.17	.15	.12	.13
Lay-offs: ²													
1940.....	2.55	2.67											
1939.....	2.24	1.87	2.23	2.60	2.67	2.46	2.54	2.05	1.58	1.81	1.97	2.65	2.22
Miscellaneous separations: ³													
1940.....	.11	.11											
Total:													
1940.....	3.43	3.56											
1939.....	3.19	2.61	3.18	3.46	3.48	3.31	3.36	3.01	2.79	2.91	2.95	3.46	3.14
Accessions:⁴													
Rehirings 1940.....	1.96	1.26											
New hirings, 1940.....	1.78	1.72											
Total:													
1940.....	3.74	2.98											
1939.....	4.09	3.06	3.34	2.93	3.29	3.92	4.16	5.06	6.17	5.89	4.10	2.84	4.07

¹ The various turn-over rates represent the number of quits, discharges, lay-offs, total separations, and accessions per 100 employees.

² Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

³ Beginning with January 1940, miscellaneous separations, such as, deaths, permanently disabled, retired on pensions, etc., have been reported separately. Such separations were formerly reported under the classification "quits and miscellaneous separations."

⁴ Beginning with January 1940, accessions have been separated into two classifications—rehirings, which include workers hired after a separation of 3 months or less, and other employees hired.

Analysis by Industries

In addition to the rates for all industries combined, detailed labor turn-over data are available for 33 separate manufacturing industries.

Higher accession rates prevailed in 10 industries. Outstanding increases were reported in the brick, tile, and terra cotta industry, from 2.52 in January to 4.79 in February; cement, from 1.85 to 6.66; and sawmills, from 3.29 to 4.38. Pronounced decreases in the hiring rates occurred in the boot and shoe industry, from 4.42 to 2.62; iron and steel, from 1.15 to 0.66; men's clothing, from 5.14 to 2.84; rubber boots and shoes, from 4.59 to 0.96; slaughtering and meat packing, from 8.54 to 4.90; and woolen and worsted goods, from 6.01 to 3.47. Marked decreases in the total separation rates were shown in the cement industry, from 14.13 in January to 5.17 in February; cigars and cigarettes, from 5.35 to 2.05; and sawmills, from 6.07 to 4.27.

TABLE 2.—Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Factory Employees) in 33 Manufacturing Industries

Class of turn-over	February 1940	January 1940	February 1939	February 1940	January 1940	February 1939	February 1940	January 1940	February 1939
	Aircraft			Automobiles and bodies			Automobile parts		
Separations.....	6.38	4.03	3.36	2.42	2.12	3.58	8.56	5.70	5.63
Quits.....	1.80	1.38	.86	.64	.75	1.23	.70	.77	.50
Discharges.....	.37	.73	.13	.05	.06	.04	.25	.25	.10
Lay-offs.....	4.20	1.89	2.37	1.61	1.26	2.31	7.46	4.59	5.03
Miscellaneous separations ¹01	.03	-----	.12	.05	-----	.15	.09	-----
Accessions ²	6.92	8.66	7.30	2.35	1.87	1.81	3.41	4.63	4.48
Rehirings.....	1.01	.27	-----	1.64	1.01	-----	1.44	1.41	-----
New hirings.....	5.91	8.39	-----	.71	.86	-----	1.97	3.22	-----
	Boots and shoes			Brick, tile, and terra cotta			Cast-iron pipe		
Separations.....	2.08	1.99	1.69	7.37	9.59	4.27	1.57	2.28	2.90
Quits.....	.61	.63	.71	.35	.45	.47	.40	.38	.25
Discharges.....	.14	.12	.14	.06	.14	.10	.11	.07	.07
Lay-offs.....	1.29	1.19	.84	6.80	8.95	3.70	.83	1.69	2.58
Miscellaneous separations ¹04	.05	-----	.16	.05	-----	.23	.14	-----
Accessions ²	2.62	4.42	3.57	4.79	2.52	3.36	1.41	1.24	2.10
Rehirings.....	1.20	2.12	-----	2.94	1.87	-----	.87	.52	-----
New hirings.....	1.42	2.30	-----	1.85	.65	-----	.54	.72	-----
	Cement			Cigars and cigarettes			Cotton manufacturing		
Separations.....	5.17	14.13	1.14	2.05	5.35	4.13	4.10	3.57	2.52
Quits.....	.08	.20	.27	.88	1.77	1.02	1.09	1.14	1.04
Discharges.....	.12	.06	.11	.14	.19	.12	.20	.20	.25
Lay-offs.....	4.88	13.76	.76	.78	3.35	2.99	2.61	2.02	1.23
Miscellaneous separations ¹09	.11	-----	.25	.04	-----	.20	.21	-----
Accessions ²	6.66	1.85	7.92	3.29	3.15	2.91	2.98	3.66	3.18
Rehirings.....	5.89	1.57	-----	2.40	.94	-----	1.03	1.64	-----
New hirings.....	.77	.28	-----	.89	2.21	-----	1.95	2.02	-----
	Electrical machinery			Foundries and machine shops			Furniture		
Separations.....	2.22	2.96	2.00	3.03	2.23	2.52	4.52	3.74	3.15
Quits.....	.43	.54	.49	.51	.52	.41	.67	.63	.67
Discharges.....	.08	.10	.04	.17	.15	.08	.30	.21	.21
Lay-offs.....	1.48	2.10	1.47	2.26	1.46	2.03	3.43	2.82	2.27
Miscellaneous separations ¹23	.22	-----	.09	.10	-----	.12	.08	-----
Accessions ²	3.01	3.36	3.42	2.31	3.38	3.15	2.89	3.94	3.51
Rehirings.....	.80	1.03	-----	.50	.75	-----	1.15	2.22	-----
New hirings.....	2.21	2.33	-----	1.81	2.63	-----	1.74	1.72	-----
	Glass			Hardware			Iron and steel		
Separations.....	2.44	3.37	2.52	2.84	2.84	1.77	4.23	2.17	1.37
Quits.....	.30	.27	.23	.55	.86	.40	.37	.42	.28
Discharges.....	.12	.05	.08	.12	.19	.10	.20	.07	.04
Lay-offs.....	1.95	2.97	2.21	2.12	1.65	1.27	3.53	1.56	1.05
Miscellaneous separations ¹07	.08	-----	.05	.14	-----	.13	.12	-----
Accessions ²	1.53	1.58	1.73	.96	2.97	2.53	.66	1.15	1.19
Rehirings.....	1.02	.99	-----	.17	.59	-----	.35	.55	-----
New hirings.....	.51	.59	-----	.79	2.38	-----	.31	.60	-----

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Factory Employees) in 33 Manufacturing Industries—Continued

Class of turn-over	February 1940	January 1940	February 1939	February 1940	January 1940	February 1939	February 1940	January 1940	February 1939
	Knit goods			Machine tools			Men's clothing		
Separations.....	2.45	2.83	1.85	2.08	1.85	1.52	1.96	2.39	1.92
Quits.....	.64	.67	.90	.98	.91	.52	.61	.60	.62
Discharges.....	.15	.10	.13	.53	.45	.04	.09	.08	.04
Lay-offs.....	1.59	2.00	.82	.47	.35	.96	1.19	1.60	1.26
Miscellaneous separations ¹07	.06	-----	.10	.14	-----	.07	.11	-----
Accessions ²	2.56	3.08	3.30	5.10	5.66	3.37	2.84	5.14	4.01
Rehirings.....	1.21	1.77	-----	.24	.10	-----	1.28	3.08	-----
New hirings.....	1.35	1.31	-----	4.86	5.56	-----	1.56	2.06	-----
	Paints and varnishes			Paper and pulp			Petroleum refining		
Separations.....	2.25	2.09	2.45	1.64	1.94	1.17	1.25	2.25	1.63
Quits.....	.44	.44	1.32	.42	.40	.58	.16	.24	.27
Discharges.....	.12	.12	.19	.13	.12	.08	.17	.05	.08
Lay-offs.....	1.62	1.45	.94	.95	1.29	.51	.82	1.87	1.28
Miscellaneous separations ¹07	.08	-----	.14	.13	-----	.10	.09	-----
Accessions ²	1.64	2.95	3.03	1.30	1.38	1.28	1.76	2.23	2.36
Rehirings.....	.25	.53	-----	.49	.34	-----	.86	.92	-----
New hirings.....	1.39	2.42	-----	.81	1.04	-----	.90	1.31	-----
	Printing and publishing						Radios and phonographs		
	Book and job			Newspapers					
Separations.....	4.49	4.95	3.52	1.57	2.63	.90	10.47	8.96	8.47
Quits.....	.39	.39	.34	.21	.37	.34	1.28	1.49	1.11
Discharges.....	.23	.24	.17	.09	.06	.02	.18	.18	.31
Lay-offs.....	3.78	4.27	3.01	1.21	2.03	.54	8.99	7.27	7.05
Miscellaneous separations ¹09	.05	-----	.06	.17	-----	.02	.02	-----
Accessions ²	4.36	4.61	3.69	2.64	1.78	1.82	3.29	1.68	2.55
Rehirings.....	2.81	2.74	-----	1.26	.95	-----	1.92	.91	-----
New hirings.....	1.55	1.87	-----	1.38	.83	-----	1.37	.77	-----
	Rayon and allied products			Rubber boots and shoes			Rubber tires		
Separations.....	1.38	1.34	0.89	4.91	4.86	1.16	1.91	2.88	1.27
Quits.....	.33	.44	.34	.52	.71	.64	.23	.25	.43
Discharges.....	.11	.06	.08	.06	.24	.07	.03	.06	.05
Lay-offs.....	.89	.81	.47	3.99	3.63	.45	1.56	2.55	.79
Miscellaneous separations ¹05	.03	-----	.34	.28	-----	.09	.02	-----
Accessions ²	1.66	2.93	2.10	.96	4.59	2.59	.84	.95	1.53
Rehirings.....	.87	.62	-----	.74	4.25	-----	.56	.58	-----
New hirings.....	.79	2.31	-----	.22	.34	-----	.28	.37	-----

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Monthly Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Factory Employees) in 33 Manufacturing Industries—Continued

Class of turn-over	February 1940	January 1940	February 1939	February 1940	January 1940	February 1939	February 1940	January 1940	February 1939
	Sawmills			Shipbuilding			Silk and rayon goods		
Separations.....	4.27	6.07	4.70	4.39	4.02	2.40	5.14	5.65	3.42
Quits.....	.84	.80	.85	.70	.73	.66	.85	.87	1.29
Discharges.....	.20	.22	.13	.16	.07	.08	.08	.07	.07
Lay-offs.....	3.13	4.90	3.72	3.47	3.12	1.66	4.18	4.68	2.06
Miscellaneous separations ¹10	.15	-----	.06	.10	-----	.03	.03	-----
Accessions ²	4.38	3.29	4.32	6.60	6.03	6.20	2.55	2.60	4.34
Rehirings.....	2.31	1.79	-----	2.43	2.60	-----	1.68	1.31	-----
New hirings.....	2.07	1.50	-----	4.17	3.53	-----	.87	1.29	-----
	Slaughtering and meat packing			Steam and hot-water heating apparatus			Woolen and worsted goods		
Separations.....	9.59	5.40	11.02	1.65	1.85	0.82	9.06	5.39	6.42
Quits.....	.42	.60	.53	.40	.49	.35	.81	1.52	1.10
Discharges.....	.22	.16	.15	.09	.12	.07	.18	.10	.15
Lay-offs.....	8.72	4.39	10.34	1.07	1.14	.40	7.87	3.64	5.17
Miscellaneous separations ¹23	.25	-----	.09	.10	-----	.20	.13	-----
Accessions ²	4.90	8.54	5.56	2.20	2.15	1.64	3.47	6.01	3.68
Rehirings.....	3.65	4.62	-----	.89	.76	-----	1.81	4.22	-----
New hirings.....	1.25	3.92	-----	1.31	1.39	-----	1.66	1.79	-----

¹ Prior to January 1940 miscellaneous separations were included with "quits."² No break-down of accessions prior to January 1940.

Turn-Over by States

In table 3 are given the quit, discharge, lay-off, miscellaneous separation, rehire, and new-hire rates in manufacturing establishments in 29 States.

Lower turn-over rates were indicated in North Carolina than in any of the 29 States included in the survey. The total separation rate was shown as 2.43 and the accession rate as 1.81 per 100 employees. In contrast, reports received from California indicated separations at the rate of 4.64 and accessions at the rate of 5.39 for every 100 workers on the pay roll; Iowa reported 6.13 and 3.93; South Carolina, 4.53 and 4.19; and the State of Washington, 3.18 and 4.68. The higher turn-over rates in California were caused in part by changes in the aircraft and shipbuilding industries. The large number of separations and accessions reported by meat-packing plants were primarily responsible for the high rates in Iowa. Reports received from cotton mills showing a high number of separations and accessions caused the high turn-over rates shown in South Carolina. Increased activity in sawmills in Washington was reflected in the accession rates shown in reports from that State.

TABLE 3.—*Labor Turn-Over Rates (per 100 Employees)¹ in Manufacturing Industries in Specified States, February 1940*

States	Separation rates					Accession rates		
	Quits	Discharges	Lay-offs ¹	Miscellaneous separations	Total separations	Rehirings	New hirings	Total accessions
Alabama.....	0.90	0.30	1.64	0.09	2.93	1.16	1.59	2.75
California.....	.85	.24	3.47	.08	4.64	2.50	2.89	5.39
Connecticut.....	1.02	.08	1.79	.05	2.94	.78	2.45	3.23
Delaware.....	.63	.39	2.09	.07	3.18	(²)	(²)	2.29
Georgia.....	1.30	.29	1.94	.10	3.63	.84	2.96	3.80
Illinois.....	.57	.19	2.74	.09	3.59	.97	1.61	2.58
Indiana.....	.45	.48	4.33	.23	5.49	1.10	.88	1.98
Iowa.....	.65	.16	5.30	.02	6.13	1.62	2.31	3.93
Kentucky.....	.90	.11	1.63	.07	2.71	.81	1.06	1.87
Maine.....	.87	.17	2.51	.22	3.77	1.40	2.27	3.67
Massachusetts.....	.62	.12	2.94	.10	3.78	1.07	1.25	2.32
Michigan.....	.36	.10	2.86	.16	3.48	1.14	1.32	2.46
Minnesota.....	.37	.10	5.43	.07	5.97	2.15	1.07	3.22
Missouri.....	.51	.25	3.38	.04	4.18	2.77	.92	3.69
New Hampshire.....	.43	.09	1.66	.20	2.38	1.51	.90	2.41
New Jersey.....	.60	.16	1.96	.11	2.83	1.03	1.93	2.96
New York.....	.47	.13	2.23	.12	2.95	1.00	1.32	2.32
North Carolina.....	.60	.16	1.58	.09	2.43	.83	.98	1.81
Ohio.....	.41	.12	2.98	.15	3.66	1.06	1.30	2.36
Oregon.....	.69	.12	3.71	.09	4.61	1.84	1.99	3.83
Pennsylvania.....	.47	.08	2.78	.06	3.39	.57	1.33	1.90
Rhode Island.....	.77	.30	3.26	.17	4.50	.65	2.02	2.67
South Carolina.....	1.84	.41	2.01	.27	4.53	1.14	3.05	4.19
Tennessee.....	.68	.16	2.06	.12	3.02	1.65	1.77	3.42
Texas.....	.39	.10	2.26	.06	2.81	2.31	.77	3.08
Virginia.....	.53	.20	1.42	.39	2.54	.67	1.51	2.18
Washington.....	.87	.17	2.08	.06	3.18	3.08	1.60	4.68
West Virginia.....	.21	.06	4.31	.50	5.08	2.31	.71	3.02
Wisconsin.....	.31	.07	2.65	.08	3.11	1.02	1.39	2.41

¹ Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.² Incomplete data.

LABOR TURN-OVER IN THE BOOT AND SHOE INDUSTRY, 1938 AND 1939¹

THE annual hiring rate in the boot and shoe industry exceeded the total separation rate in 1938 and 1939. For every 100 employees on the pay roll, 43 workers were hired and 38 were separated from their jobs in 1938. In 1939, accessions were reported at the rate of 39 and separations at the rate of 34 per 100 employees on the pay roll.

An analysis of the various types of separations shows that in 1938, voluntary separations represented 23 percent of the total separations, and in 1939, 26 percent. Discharges represented slightly more than 3½ percent in 1938 and 4½ percent in 1939. Lay-offs constituted 74 percent in 1938 and 69 in 1939.

Boot and Shoe Industry Compared with all Manufacturing

Turn-over rates in the boot and shoe industry moved in the same general direction as those for all manufacturing from 1938 to 1939.

¹ Prepared under the direction of Herman B. Byer, chief of the Bureau's Division of Construction and Public Employment. For previous articles on labor turn-over in the boot and shoe industry, see *Monthly Labor Review* for October 1933 (p. 893) and January 1937 (p. 150).

Quit and discharge rates were higher in both groups, but total separations reflecting the lower lay-off rates were fewer per 100 employees. The accession rate increased in the all-manufacturing group from 46.06 in 1938 to 48.85 per 100 employees in 1939. In the boot and shoe establishments, a decrease from 42.67 to 39.45 per 100 employees was indicated. The hiring rate of 39.45 in the boot and shoe establishments in 1939 was much lower than the all-industry rate of 48.85 per 100 employees.

TABLE 1.—*Labor Turn-Over in All Manufacturing and in the Boot and Shoe Industry, 1938 and 1939*

Industry	Separations								Accessions		Net change ²	
	Quits		Discharges		Lay-offs ¹		Total					
	1939	1938	1939	1938	1939	1938	1939	1938	1939	1938	1939	1938
All manufacturing.....	9.52	7.44	1.52	1.29	26.67	40.56	37.71	49.29	48.85	46.06	+11.14	-3.23
Boots and shoes.....	8.99	8.82	1.55	1.39	23.87	28.22	34.41	38.43	39.45	42.67	+5.04	+4.24

¹ Including temporary, indeterminate, and permanent lay-offs.

² Net change is the difference between the accession and separation rates. When the accession rate exceeds the separation rate, the difference is shown as +, and when the separation rate exceeds the accession rate, as -.

Turn-Over Rates, by Size of Plant

Turn-over rates in plants with fewer than 300 employees were more than twice as high as in plants with 300 or more workers on the pay roll. In 1938, the smaller plants registered a total separation rate of 66.35 per 100 employees as compared with 32.48 for the larger plants. Although the rate of separations was lower in both groups in 1939, the smaller companies showed 61.24 compared with 28.54 for the larger plants. The high separation rates were accompanied by high accession rates. The smaller firms reported a hiring rate of 75.53 in 1938 and 69.98 in 1939. The rates for the larger establishments were 35.66 and 32.77, respectively.

TABLE 2.—*Labor Turn-Over Rates in the Boot and Shoe Industry, by Size of Plant, 1938 and 1939* ¹

Class of turn-over	Rate per 100 employees in plants manufacturing boots and shoes employing in—			
	1939		1938	
	Fewer than 300 employees ²	300 or more employees ³	Fewer than 300 employees ²	300 or more employees ³
Separations.....	61.24	28.54	66.35	32.48
Quits.....	10.41	8.68	10.88	8.88
Discharges.....	1.56	1.55	1.76	1.31
Lay-offs.....	49.27	18.31	53.71	22.79
Accessions.....	69.98	32.77	75.53	35.66

¹ The smaller plants employed 21,023 in 1939 and 19,578 in 1938. Establishments with 300 or more persons on the pay roll had 96,100 employees in 1939 and 91,848 in 1938.

² 128 plants.

³ 113 plants.

Turn-Over Rates in Identical Plants, 1938 and 1939

In both years, approximately two-thirds of the plants employing nearly 70 percent of the workers reported less than 10 quits per 100 workers. In the group with a quit rate of 25 or more for every 100 employees, the number of establishments increased from 8 percent of the total in 1938 to 9 percent in 1939. The employees in this group increased from 5 percent in 1938 to 7 percent in 1939.

Plants with a discharge rate of less than 1 per 100 workers employed 68 percent of the total number of employees in 1938 and 64 percent in 1939. The number of firms and employees having a discharge rate of 9 or more for every 100 workers remained virtually the same in both years.

One-half of the total number of workers were employed in plants having a lay-off rate of less than 20 for every 100 employees. Approximately 50 percent of the lay-offs occurred in establishments having less than 10 lay-offs per 100 employees on the pay roll. The number of concerns reporting a lay-off rate of 90 or more decreased from 17.5 percent in 1938 to 11 percent in 1939. The number of persons employed in these plants declined from 9.5 percent of the total in 1938 to 5.3 percent in 1939.

Approximately 37 percent of the concerns reported total separations of more than 20 and fewer than 60 per 100 workers in both years. These plants employed 35 percent of all workers in 1938 and 38 percent of the total number of employees in 1939. In the higher brackets, a marked change was indicated in the number of establishments having total separations of 120 or more per 100 employees. In this group, the number of plants decreased from 14 percent in 1938 to 9 percent in 1939. The number of persons employed by these firms decreased from 6.4 percent of the total in 1938 to 4.3 percent in 1939.

In 1939, more than 50 accessions per 100 employees were reported in approximately 38 percent of the plants and in 1938, 46 percent. These establishments employed one-fourth of the total number of employees in 1939 and one-third of the total in 1938. The greatest percentage of accessions occurred in the group which hired 10 and less than 40 accessions per 100 employees. In 1939, 43 percent of the firms employing 41 percent of the total number of workers, and in 1938, 37 percent of the establishments with 30 percent of the total number of workers were in this group. No significant changes occurred in the number of plants and employees reporting accessions of 70 or more per 100 employees.

TABLE 3.—Distribution of 246 Identical Boot and Shoe Manufacturing Plants by Turn-Over Rates, 1938 and 1939

Class and rate of turn-over	Establishments				Employees			
	1939		1938		1939		1938	
	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage	Simple percentage	Cumulative percentage
Quits:								
Under 2.5.....	31.7	31.7	27.3	27.3	22.4	22.4	20.3	20.3
2.5 and under 5.0.....	9.8	41.5	14.6	41.9	22.6	45.0	27.5	47.8
5.0 and under 7.5.....	13.8	55.3	11.4	53.3	13.9	58.9	10.6	58.4
7.5 and under 10.0.....	11.8	67.1	13.8	67.1	10.3	69.2	12.4	70.8
10.0 and under 15.0.....	10.9	78.0	13.4	80.5	11.3	80.5	12.0	82.8
15.0 and under 20.0.....	8.9	86.9	6.1	86.6	8.3	88.8	4.8	87.6
20.0 and under 25.0.....	4.5	91.4	5.3	91.9	3.9	92.7	7.7	95.3
25.0 and under 30.0.....	3.3	94.7	2.0	93.9	4.2	96.9	1.5	96.8
30.0 and under 35.0.....	1.2	95.9	1.2	95.1	.8	97.7	.5	97.3
35.0 and over.....	4.1	100.0	4.9	100.0	2.3	100.0	2.7	100.0
Total.....	100.0		100.0		100.0		100.0	
Discharges:								
Under 0.5.....	49.6	49.6	50.4	50.4	35.2	35.2	35.9	35.9
0.5 and under 1.0.....	11.8	61.4	15.1	65.5	28.4	63.6	31.7	67.6
1.0 and under 2.0.....	14.2	75.6	14.6	80.1	14.7	78.3	13.8	81.4
2.0 and under 3.0.....	8.5	84.1	5.7	85.8	5.6	83.9	7.4	88.8
3.0 and under 4.0.....	4.5	88.6	3.7	89.5	5.7	89.6	3.0	91.8
4.0 and under 5.0.....	3.7	92.3	2.0	91.5	2.7	92.3	1.0	92.8
5.0 and under 7.0.....	3.3	95.6	4.9	96.4	4.4	96.7	5.1	97.9
7.0 and under 9.0.....	1.6	97.2	.8	97.2	1.6	98.3	.4	98.3
9.0 and under 11.0.....	.4	97.6	1.2	98.4	.1	98.4	.4	98.7
11.0 and over.....	2.4	100.0	1.6	100.0	1.6	100.0	1.3	100.0
Total.....	100.0		100.0		100.0		100.0	
Lay-offs:								
Under 5.....	28.9	28.9	24.4	24.4	40.9	40.9	36.1	36.1
5 and under 10.....	11.0	39.9	12.2	36.6	12.3	53.2	12.4	48.5
10 and under 20.....	13.4	53.3	13.4	50.0	14.1	67.3	14.4	62.9
20 and under 30.....	9.3	62.6	8.5	58.5	7.6	74.9	8.2	71.1
30 and under 40.....	4.5	67.1	5.7	64.2	3.8	78.7	6.2	77.3
40 and under 60.....	10.9	78.0	10.6	74.8	10.1	88.8	9.4	86.7
60 and under 90.....	11.0	89.0	7.7	82.5	5.9	94.7	3.8	90.5
90 and under 120.....	5.7	94.7	4.9	87.4	3.1	97.8	4.0	94.5
120 and under 150.....	1.2	95.9	6.1	93.5	.8	98.6	3.0	97.5
150 and over.....	4.1	100.0	6.5	100.0	1.4	100.0	2.5	100.0
Total.....	100.0		100.0		100.0		100.0	
Total separations:								
Under 10.....	17.5	17.5	13.4	13.4	28.6	28.6	26.6	26.6
10 and under 20.....	17.9	35.4	21.1	34.5	18.0	46.6	21.4	48.0
20 and under 30.....	13.8	49.2	12.2	46.7	15.9	62.5	11.1	59.1
30 and under 40.....	12.2	61.4	7.7	54.4	9.2	71.7	6.4	65.5
40 and under 60.....	11.4	72.8	16.3	70.7	12.5	84.2	17.7	83.2
60 and under 90.....	9.3	82.1	8.5	79.2	6.2	90.4	6.2	89.4
90 and under 120.....	8.9	91.0	6.5	85.7	5.3	95.7	4.2	93.6
120 and under 150.....	3.3	94.3	5.7	91.4	1.9	97.6	3.1	96.7
150 and under 180.....	3.3	97.6	5.3	96.7	1.4	99.0	2.4	99.1
180 and over.....	2.4	100.0	3.3	100.0	1.0	100.0	.9	100.0
Total.....	100.0		100.0		100.0		100.0	
Accessions:								
Under 5.....	4.5	4.5	3.3	3.3	2.7	2.7	3.4	3.4
5 and under 10.....	6.9	11.4	8.9	12.2	21.6	24.3	27.1	30.5
10 and under 20.....	16.7	28.1	14.2	26.4	15.5	39.8	13.4	43.9
20 and under 30.....	13.4	41.5	15.4	41.8	12.6	52.4	12.4	56.3
30 and under 40.....	12.6	54.1	6.9	48.7	12.7	65.1	4.3	60.6
40 and under 50.....	7.7	61.8	5.3	54.0	10.1	75.2	5.4	66.0
50 and under 70.....	9.8	71.6	13.4	67.4	8.9	84.1	13.3	79.3
70 and under 110.....	15.0	86.6	13.5	80.9	8.8	92.9	11.5	90.8
110 and under 150.....	7.3	93.9	8.9	89.8	4.2	97.1	5.1	95.9
150 and over.....	6.1	100.0	10.2	100.0	2.9	100.0	4.1	100.0
Total.....	100.0		100.0		100.0		100.0	

Trend of Employment and Pay Rolls

SUMMARY OF REPORTS FOR MARCH 1940

Total Nonagricultural Employment

THERE was an increase of 165,000 in total nonagricultural employment from February to March. This was somewhat smaller than usual because of a contraseasonal reduction in factory employment. As compared with last year at this time, there were nearly 1,000,000 more people at work. The principal employment gain in March was in retail stores which hired about 150,000 additional workers for the Easter trade.

Class I railroads reduced employment in March by about 6,700 workers and manufacturing firms by 47,500 wage earners. The latter decline was due primarily to recessions in steel and textile mills. Manufacturing industries affected directly or indirectly by war orders such as aircraft, machine tools, and shipbuilding, continued to show employment gains. These figures do not include emergency employment which decreased 69,000 as follows: 38,000 on projects operated by the Work Projects Administration and 31,000 in the Civilian Conservation Corps. Employment on the Out-of-School Work Program of the National Youth Administration was unchanged from February to March.

Industrial and Business Employment

Gains in employment from February to March were shown by 42 of the 90 manufacturing industries surveyed and by 9 of the 16 non-manufacturing industries covered. Pay-roll increases were shared by 60 of the manufacturing and 10 of the nonmanufacturing industries.

For all manufacturing industries combined, there was an employment decline of 0.6 percent, or 47,500 workers, as against an expected seasonal gain of 1.1 percent. Weekly factory pay rolls showed an increase of 0.4 percent, or \$776,000, which is considerably smaller than the expected increase for this time of year—1.7 percent. Nevertheless, factory employment was 6.9 percent higher than a year ago and factory pay rolls were 12.1 percent higher. The gains over the year interval were due primarily to increases in the durable-goods industries in the latter months of 1939.

The more important decreases in manufacturing employment from February to March were in the following industries: Woolen and worsted goods (24,000 wage earners), steel (24,000), cotton goods (15,000), hosiery (5,300), silk and rayon goods (3,500), canning and preserving (2,800), book and job printing (1,900), and foundries and machine shops (1,600).

Among the more important employment increases, a number of which were seasonal, were the following: Fertilizers (7,900), women's clothing (6,200), automobiles (5,200), shipbuilding (4,400), men's clothing (3,100), cigars and cigarettes (3,000), glass (2,600), millinery (2,300), sawmills (1,900), newspapers (1,900), machine tools (1,700), aircraft (1,500), brick, tile, and terra cotta (1,500), and cement (1,500). Employment in factories manufacturing aircraft and machine tools was at the highest levels ever recorded and in private ship yards at the highest level since 1921.

Pre-Easter activity was reflected in an employment gain of 4.1 percent (150,000 workers) in retail establishments, chiefly general merchandising, variety, and apparel stores. In wholesale trade there was little net change in employment, a gain of 0.1 percent. Quarries and nonmetal mines increased their working forces more than seasonally (6.7 percent) and anthracite mines reported a small employment gain (0.9 percent), accompanied by an increase of 18.4 percent in pay rolls, reflecting a marked expansion in production from the unusually low level of early February. In bituminous-coal mining, employment decreased seasonally by 2.1 percent, while metal mines and oil-producing companies reported little change. In dyeing and cleaning plants there was a seasonal employment expansion of 6.1 percent, and in private building construction an increase of 3 percent. The gain in private building construction was somewhat smaller than the corresponding increase last year, but was larger than the March gains for all other years from 1932 to date, except 1934 and 1936, when the figures were affected by unusual conditions.

A preliminary report of the Interstate Commerce Commission showed an employment decline by class I railroads of 0.5 percent, or nearly 6,700 workers, from February to March. The total number employed in the current month was 988,229. Corresponding pay-roll figures were not available when this report was prepared; for February they were \$152,816,415, a decline of 6.7 percent from January.

Hours and earnings.—The average hours worked per week by manufacturing wage earners were 37.5 in March, an increase of 0.6 percent since February. The average hourly earnings of these workers were 66.5 cents, an increase of 0.3 percent from the preceding month. The average weekly earnings of factory workers were \$25.46, an increase of 1 percent since February.

Of the 14 nonmanufacturing industries for which man-hours are available, 9 showed an increase in average hours worked per week and 6 reported gains in average hourly earnings. Eight of the 16 nonmanufacturing industries surveyed reported higher weekly earnings. Employment and pay-roll indexes and average weekly earnings for March 1940 are given in table 1 for all manufacturing industries combined, for selected nonmanufacturing industries, and for class I railroads. Percentage changes over the month and year intervals are also given.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, and Earnings in All Manufacturing Industries Combined and in Nonmanufacturing Industries, March 1940 (Preliminary Figures)*

Industry	Employment			Pay rolls			Average weekly earnings		
	Index, March 1940	Percentage change from—		Index, March 1940	Percentage change from—		Average in March 1940	Percentage change from—	
		February 1940	March 1939		February 1940	March 1939		February 1940	March 1939
All manufacturing industries combined ¹	(1923-25 = 100) 100.8	-0.6	+6.9	(1923-25 = 100) 98.2	+0.4	+12.1	\$25.46	+1.0	+4.8
Class I steam railroads ²	55.3	-5	+4.2	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)	(³)
Coal mining:	(1929 = 100)			(1929 = 100)					
Anthracite ⁴	52.5	+9	+1.5	38.9	+18.4	+13.8	24.38	+17.4	+12.0
Bituminous ⁴	89.8	-2.1	+2.7	78.6	-9.6	+1.1	23.74	-7.7	-1.6
Metalliferous mining	66.2	-1	+8.6	63.0	-1.9	+17.4	29.79	-1.9	+8.1
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	40.8	+6.7	+1.9	33.9	+10.1	+2.4	20.65	+3.2	+5
Crude-petroleum production	63.0	-1	-4.9	58.6	-8	-4.5	34.28	-7	+4
Public utilities:									
Telephone and telegraph ⁵	75.8	-1	+1.9	98.3	+1.5	+4.7	\$31.84	+1.6	+2.8
Electric light and power ⁶	89.4	+3	+2.8	102.5	+2	+4.4	\$34.71	-1	+1.6
Street railways and busses ⁷	68.1	-9	-1.2	69.6	-2.7	+3	\$33.70	-1.9	+1.5
Trade:									
Wholesale ⁸	90.4	+1	+3.3	77.9	+1.0	+4.2	\$29.92	+8	+9
Retail ⁸	90.7	+4.1	+4.4	81.9	+3.3	+5.4	\$21.14	-8	+1.0
Hotels (year-round) ^{4 8}	91.9	-3	-9	82.3	-5	+1.5	\$15.51	-3	+2.4
Laundries ⁴	96.2	+4	+3.5	84.2	+1.2	+6.1	17.88	+8	+2.5
Dyeing and cleaning ⁴	99.4	+6.1	+4.2	72.5	+12.6	+7.2	20.00	+6.2	+2.9
Brokerage	(³)	-1.7	-3.1	(³)	-2.4	-4.7	\$36.80	-7	-1.6
Insurance	(³)	+2	+1.0	(³)	+1.7	+2.5	\$37.01	+1.6	+1.5
Building construction	(³)	+3.0	-2.0	(³)	+6.3	+1.5	29.89	+3.2	+3.5

¹ Revised indexes—adjusted to 1937 Census of Manufactures.

² Preliminary; source—Interstate Commerce Commission.

³ Not available.

⁴ Indexes adjusted to 1935 census. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in January 1938 issue of the pamphlet, *Employment and Pay Rolls*.

⁵ Retail-trade indexes adjusted to 1935 census and public-utility indexes to 1937 census. Not comparable with indexes published in pamphlets prior to January 1940 or in the *Monthly Labor Review* prior to April 1940. Revised series available upon request.

⁶ Average weekly earnings not strictly comparable with figures published in issues of the *Monthly Labor Review* dated earlier than April 1938 (except for the January figures appearing in the March issue), as they now exclude corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory.

⁷ Covers street railways and trolley and motorbus operations of subsidiary, affiliated, and successor companies.

⁸ Indexes adjusted to 1933 census. Comparable series in November 1934 and subsequent issues of pamphlet or February 1935 and subsequent issues of *Monthly Labor Review*.

⁹ Cash payments only; the additional value of board, room, and tips cannot be computed.

Public Employment

The decline in employment on construction projects financed by the Public Works Administration, which has been uninterrupted since July 1939, continued during the month ending March 15, with a further decrease of 11,000. Wage payments of \$9,314,000 to the 98,000

workers employed on these projects in March were \$1,500,000 less than in February.

As a result of the seasonal upturn on low-rent projects of the United States Housing Authority and the beginning of work on several new projects, 3,000 additional building-trades workers found employment on these projects, bringing the number at work to 33,000 for the month ending March 15. Pay-roll disbursements for the month totaled \$2,895,000, an increase of \$114,000 from the preceding month.

The seasonal increase of activity on construction projects financed from regular Federal appropriations resulted in the employment of 16,000 additional workers during the month ending March 15. Appreciable increases were reported on public road projects, ship construction, and reclamation projects, while a decrease was reported on dredging projects. Pay-roll disbursements of \$22,959,000 for all types of projects were \$1,040,000 more than in February.

Employment on construction projects financed by the Reconstruction Finance Corporation remained at approximately 2,300 during the month ending March 15. Pay rolls for the month were \$265,000.

Work-relief projects of the Work Projects Administration furnished employment to 2,212,000 persons in March. This figure represents a decrease of 38,000 from February and one of 704,000 from March 1939. Because weather conditions did not cause so much lost time as in February, pay rolls of \$120,685,000 in March, in spite of decreased employment, were \$9,210,000 more than in the preceding month.

The number of youths employed on the Out-of-School Work Program of the National Youth Administration was unchanged from February to March while 18,000 students were added to the rolls of the Student Work Program.

The end of an enlistment period caused employment in camps of the Civilian Conservation Corps to drop from 337,000 in February to 306,000 in March, a decrease of 31,000. Of the 306,000 on the pay roll, 269,500 were enrollees; 1,600, educational advisers; 250, nurses; and 34,650, supervisory and technical employees. Pay rolls for all groups of employees were \$13,714,000.

In the regular services of the Federal Government, increases were reported in the executive and military services and a decrease in the legislative service. Employment in the judicial service was unchanged. Of the 946,000 employees in the executive service, 129,000 were working in the District of Columbia and 817,000 outside the District. Force-account employees (employees on the pay roll of the United States Government who are engaged on construction projects and whose period of employment terminates as the project is completed) were 9.0 percent of the total number of employees in the executive service. Increased employment was reported in the War, Navy, and

Treasury Departments and in the Department of Agriculture, while minor decreases occurred in the Post Office Department, Panama Canal, Federal Works Agency, and Federal Loan Agency.

Employment on State-financed road projects declined 9,000 in March. Of the 127,000 at work, 23,000 were engaged in the construction of new roads and 104,000 on maintenance. Pay rolls for both types of road work were \$9,729,000.

A summary of Federal employment and pay-roll data for March is given in table 2.

TABLE 2.—Summary of Federal Employment and Pay Rolls, March and February 1940¹
(Preliminary Figures)

Class	Employment			Pay rolls		
	March	February	Per-centage change	March	February	Per-centage change
Federal services:						
Executive ²	945,836	939,015	+0.7	\$143,912,985	\$141,918,239	+1.4
Judicial.....	2,379	2,379	(³)	577,807	579,826	-.3
Legislative.....	5,860	5,883	-.4	1,299,641	1,302,205	-.2
Military.....	456,802	449,776	+1.6	32,275,327	31,846,400	+1.3
Construction projects:						
Financed by PWA ⁴	97,834	109,083	-10.3	9,314,198	10,814,115	-13.9
USHA low-rent housing.....	33,445	30,268	+10.5	2,895,069	2,780,651	+4.1
Financed by RFC ⁵	2,302	2,324	-.9	264,600	242,349	+9.2
Financed by regular Federal appropriations.....	220,310	203,893	+8.1	22,958,657	21,918,250	+4.7
Federal agency projects financed by Work Projects Administration.....	94,326	92,468	+2.0	4,354,333	4,430,881	-1.7
Projects operated by WPA.....	2,212,239	2,249,912	-1.7	120,684,852	111,474,813	+8.3
National Youth Administration:						
Out-of-school work program.....	336,282	336,002	+1.1	6,264,303	6,144,372	+2.0
Student work program.....	473,485	455,510	+3.9	3,273,980	3,111,205	+5.2
Civilian Conservation Corps.....	306,019	336,861	-9.2	13,714,184	14,663,271	-6.5

¹ Includes data on projects financed wholly or partially from Federal funds.

² Includes force-account and supervisory and technical employees shown under other classifications to the extent of 121,601 employees and pay-roll disbursements of \$16,042,779 for March 1940, and 120,874 employees and pay-roll disbursements of \$15,796,962 for February 1940.

³ No change.

⁴ Data covering PWA projects financed from National Industrial Recovery Act funds, Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts of 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds, and Public Works Administration Appropriation Act of 1938 funds are included. These data are not shown under projects financed by the Work Projects Administration. Includes 7,813 wage earners and \$685,082 pay roll for March 1940; 8,383 wage earners and \$800,435 pay roll for February 1940, covering Public Works Administration projects financed from Emergency Relief Appropriation Acts of 1935, 1936, and 1937 funds. Includes 86,070 wage earners and \$8,216,545 pay roll for March 1940; 95,949 wage earners and \$9,505,578 pay roll for February 1940, covering Public Works Administration projects financed from funds provided by the Public Works Administration Appropriation Act of 1938.

⁵ Includes 992 employees and pay-roll disbursements of \$131,405 for March 1940; 960 employees and pay-roll disbursements of \$96,209 for February 1940 on projects financed by the RFC Mortgage Co.

DETAILED REPORTS FOR FEBRUARY 1940

A MONTHLY report on employment and pay rolls is published as a separate pamphlet by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. This gives detailed data regarding employment, pay rolls, working hours, and earnings for the current month for industrial and business establishments and for the various forms of public employment. This pam-

phlet is distributed free upon request. Its principal contents for the month of February 1940, insofar as industrial and business employment is concerned, are reproduced in this section of the Monthly Labor Review.

Industrial and Business Employment

Monthly reports on employment and pay rolls are available for the following groups: 90 manufacturing industries; 16 nonmanufacturing industries, including private building construction; and class I steam railroads. The reports for the first 2 of these groups—manufacturing and nonmanufacturing—are based on sample surveys by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The figures on class I steam railroads are compiled by the Interstate Commerce Commission and are presented in the foregoing summary.

The indexes of factory employment and pay rolls are based on the 3-year average 1923-25 as 100 and are adjusted to 1937 census data. They relate to wage earners only and are computed from reports supplied by representative manufacturing establishments in 90 manufacturing industries. These reports cover more than 55 percent of the total wage earners in all manufacturing industries of the country and more than 65 percent of the wage earners in the 90 industries included in the monthly survey of the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

The indexes for the nonmanufacturing industries are based on the 12-month average for 1929 as 100. Figures for mining, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning cover wage earners only, but the figures for public utilities, trade, and hotels relate to all employees except corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory. For crude-petroleum production they cover wage earners and the clerical field force. The coverage of the reporting samples for the various nonmanufacturing industries ranges from approximately 25 percent for wholesale trade and dyeing and cleaning to approximately 80 percent for quarrying and nonmetallic mining, anthracite mining, and public utilities.

The indexes for retail trade have been adjusted to conform in general with the 1935 census of retail distribution and to allow for weighting by lines of trade. For the public utilities they have been adjusted to the 1937 census of electrical industries, for wholesale trade to the 1933 census, and for coal mining, year-round hotels, laundries, and dyeing and cleaning to the 1935 censuses.

Data for both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries are based on reports of the number of employees and amount of pay rolls for the pay period ending nearest the 15th of the month.

The average weekly earnings shown in table 1 are computed by dividing the total weekly pay rolls in the reporting establishments by the total number of full- and part-time employees reported. As not all reporting establishments supply man-hours, average hours worked per week and average hourly earnings are necessarily based on data furnished by a smaller number of reporting firms. The size and composition of the reporting sample vary slightly from month to month. Therefore, the average hours per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings shown may not be strictly comparable from month to month. The sample, however, is believed to be sufficiently adequate in virtually all instances to indicate the general movements of earnings and hours over the period shown. The changes from the preceding month, expressed as percentages, are based on identical lists of firms for the 2 months, but the changes from February 1939 are computed from chain indexes based on the month-to-month percentage changes.

EMPLOYMENT AND PAY-ROLL INDEXES, AVERAGE HOURS, AND AVERAGE EARNINGS

The employment and pay-roll indexes, as well as average hours worked per week, average hourly earnings, and average weekly earnings for December 1939 and January and February 1940, where available, are presented in table 1. The December and January figures, where given, may differ in some instances from those previously published because of revisions necessitated primarily by the inclusion of late reports.

In table 2, indexes of employment and pay rolls are given for all manufacturing industries combined for the durable- and nondurable-goods groups of manufacturing industries, and for each of the 13 nonmanufacturing industries, by months, from February 1939 to February 1940, inclusive. The accompanying chart indicates the trend of factory employment and pay rolls from January 1919 to February 1940.

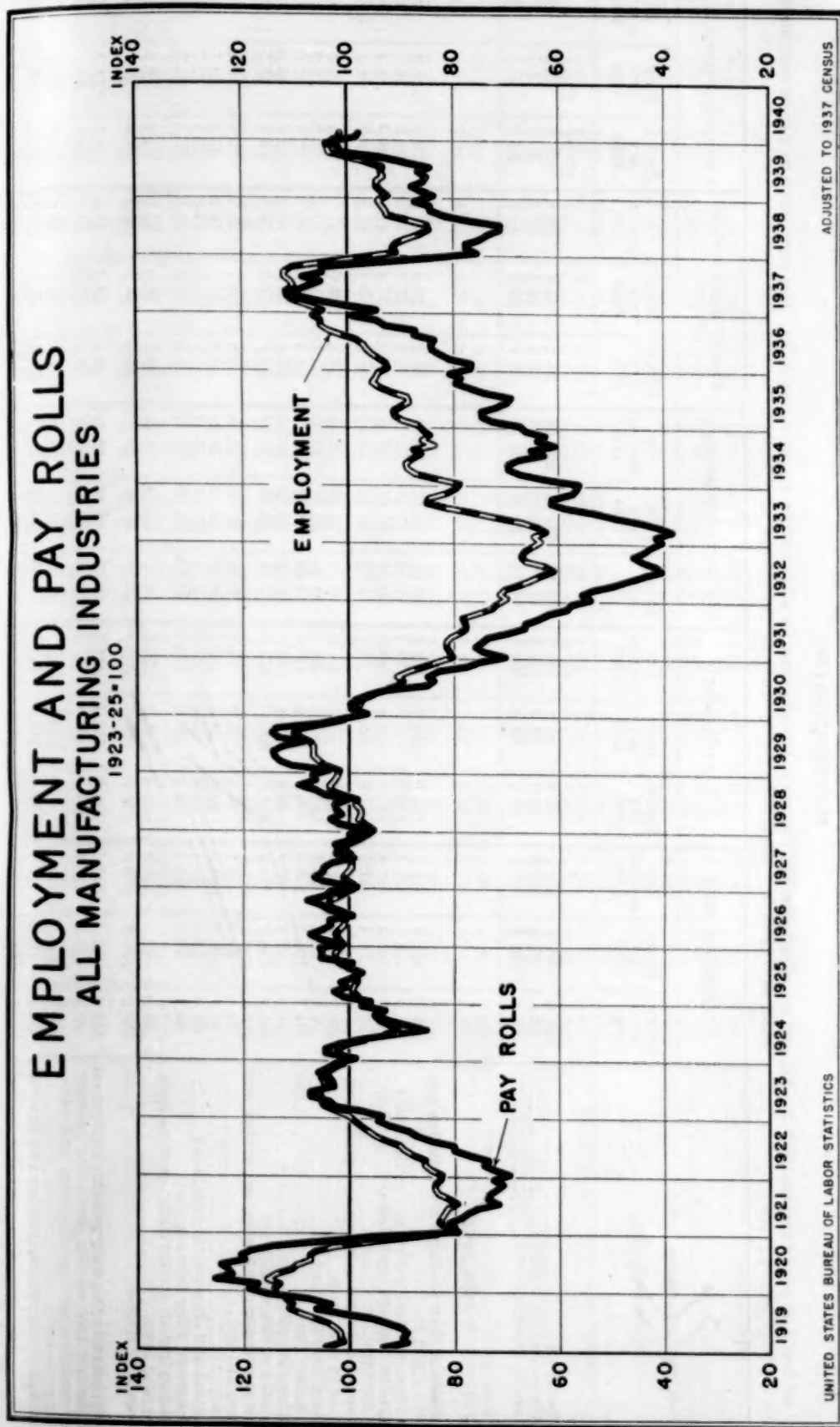


TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries*

MANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 3-year average, 1923-25 = 100, and are adjusted to 1937 Census of Manufactures for all industries except automobiles. Not comparable to indexes published in pamphlets prior to August 1939. Comparable series available upon request]

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings ¹			Average hours worked per week ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	Febru-ary 1940	Janu-ary 1940	De-cember 1939	Febru-ary 1940	Janu-ary 1940	De-cember 1939	Febru-ary 1940	Janu-ary 1940	De-cember 1939	Febru-ary 1940	Janu-ary 1940	De-cember 1939	Febru-ary 1940	Janu-ary 1940	De-cember 1939
All manufacturing	101.4	101.5	104.1	97.8	98.3	103.7	\$25.20	\$25.51	\$26.26	37.3	37.4	38.6	66.3	66.3	66.2
Durable goods.....	96.5	97.4	100.0	96.6	98.2	104.6	28.60	28.96	30.04	37.9	38.1	39.6	72.6	72.7	72.7
Nondurable goods.....	106.1	105.4	108.0	99.1	98.5	102.8	21.73	21.87	22.30	36.8	36.9	37.7	60.8	60.7	60.5
Durable goods															
Iron and steel and their products, not including ma- chinery.....	106.7	108.3	111.4	101.0	106.3	115.3	27.95	29.07	30.71	36.5	37.6	39.4	76.4	76.6	77.2
Blast furnaces, steel works, and rolling mills.....	117.4	120.9	123.3	110.2	119.3	129.2	29.69	31.25	33.19	35.4	37.1	39.0	83.8	84.1	85.1
Bolts, nuts, washers, and rivets.....	114.3	117.2	119.8	125.8	124.4	142.1	26.54	25.61	28.91	39.0	37.4	42.3	68.2	68.4	68.3
Cast-iron pipe.....	75.6	74.4	77.5	67.6	64.8	71.7	21.68	21.14	22.43	35.9	35.1	37.9	59.9	59.8	58.7
Cutlery (not including silver and plated cut- lery) and edge tools.....	103.9	104.6	108.7	90.9	93.3	101.9	22.74	23.28	24.46	38.3	39.0	41.3	60.5	60.8	60.2
Forgings, iron and steel.....	71.9	72.3	72.6	84.1	85.8	88.2	31.96	32.27	33.05	40.8	41.3	42.1	78.2	78.2	78.6
Hardware.....	101.3	103.5	105.6	100.7	108.9	117.0	24.68	26.01	27.44	36.4	38.8	40.2	67.3	67.0	68.0
Plumbers' supplies.....	81.9	82.2	83.9	70.7	70.8	77.7	25.15	25.02	26.96	36.5	36.8	39.4	69.0	68.0	68.4
Stamped and enameled ware.....	161.4	158.0	165.6	161.6	160.2	173.7	23.88	24.18	25.01	37.7	37.9	39.4	62.6	63.5	63.4
Steam and hot-water heating apparatus and steam fittings.....	84.4	83.2	86.2	75.6	73.9	79.9	27.45	27.20	28.38	38.9	38.7	40.2	70.6	70.4	70.5
Stoves.....	86.0	78.0	89.3	74.5	64.6	78.5	24.71	23.75	25.24	36.8	35.7	38.0	67.4	66.7	66.9
Structural and ornamental metalwork.....	71.6	73.4	75.4	61.2	62.6	67.2	27.71	27.65	28.74	37.7	37.9	39.3	73.2	72.7	73.1
Tin cans and other tinware.....	92.7	93.6	95.4	93.0	96.9	100.4	22.82	23.46	23.82	36.8	37.9	38.6	62.0	61.9	61.9
Tools (not including edge tools, machine tools, files, and saws).....	96.2	96.1	96.9	96.4	97.5	102.0	25.37	25.71	26.66	40.7	41.3	43.0	62.6	62.6	62.2
Wirework.....	162.0	171.9	176.4	175.3	188.8	204.4	26.93	27.31	28.81	38.4	39.3	40.9	70.2	69.5	70.5
Machinery, not including transportation equipment	113.1	112.4	113.1	119.3	119.1	122.1	29.67	29.74	30.25	40.1	40.4	41.3	73.7	73.5	73.2
Agricultural implements (including tractors).....	141.1	135.2	130.9	163.8	155.8	151.5	31.14	30.91	31.07	39.2	38.9	39.3	79.7	79.6	79.3
Cash registers, adding machines, and calcu- lating machines.....	127.9	126.4	128.1	130.5	128.6	131.6	32.17	32.11	32.48	39.1	39.1	39.4	82.5	82.5	82.8
Electrical machinery, apparatus, and supplies.....	101.6	101.7	102.6	111.6	112.4	114.2	29.53	29.67	29.89	39.3	39.7	40.4	75.3	74.9	74.2

Engines, turbines, waterwheels, and wind-mills.....	133.0	125.3	119.8	171.6	161.8	156.6	34.09	34.10	34.49	42.1	42.6	43.0	81.3	80.4	80.5
Foundry and machine-shop products.....	97.6	97.2	97.2	94.2	98.2	98.6	28.89	28.27	30.35	39.9	40.4	41.7	72.3	72.6	72.7
Machine tools.....	204.8	196.8	192.3	270.7	258.5	256.2	36.60	36.41	37.03	47.8	47.4	48.2	76.6	76.9	77.0
Radio and phonographs.....	126.8	136.2	162.3	113.2	122.2	148.8	22.28	22.22	22.71	39.9	37.0	38.6	60.9	60.8	59.0
Textile machinery and parts.....	85.9	86.2	85.7	81.4	83.5	82.5	25.97	26.65	27.41	39.9	40.6	41.5	65.2	65.8	66.3
Typewriters and parts.....	117.5	122.6	127.3	110.0	111.3	121.5	22.96	22.27	23.41	35.6	34.9	36.6	64.4	63.7	64.0
Transportation equipment.....	114.7	115.5	116.5	119.2	118.3	124.1	33.36	33.23	34.51	37.7	37.4	38.5	89.4	89.4	90.1
Aircraft.....	2,041.5	2,029.7	1,886.0	1,884.2	1,900.6	1,777.9	28.77	29.21	29.39	41.2	41.5	42.3	73.0	74.1	73.5
Automobiles.....	113.0	115.8	118.1	118.5	119.9	137.9	34.74	34.28	35.81	37.2	36.7	38.1	93.5	93.4	94.0
Cars, electric- and steam-railroad.....	59.0	52.8	52.1	54.3	47.5	46.8	28.83	28.05	28.12	39.1	38.5	38.6	73.8	72.9	72.9
Locomotives.....	28.9	28.3	28.0	27.2	27.2	27.5	28.93	29.49	30.12	37.4	37.7	38.6	77.3	78.2	78.1
Shipbuilding.....	142.7	137.5	139.4	149.9	148.0	152.0	31.53	32.32	32.73	37.1	38.2	38.2	85.7	84.6	85.3
Nonferrous metals and their products.....	107.1	109.8	112.9	103.4	108.7	116.5	26.65	27.37	28.67	38.4	39.3	40.9	69.6	70.1	70.3
Aluminum manufactures.....	171.3	170.1	170.4	194.8	192.7	196.8	27.72	27.62	28.21	39.2	39.3	40.3	70.2	69.9	70.3
Brass, bronze, and copper products.....	128.3	135.7	137.7	136.4	150.3	158.9	28.96	30.28	31.63	40.5	40.5	41.8	74.3	74.9	75.8
Clocks and watches and time-recording devices.....	91.2	90.6	93.1	94.5	92.9	96.9	22.96	22.75	23.09	38.5	38.4	38.9	59.6	59.2	59.3
Jewelry.....	91.0	89.0	98.6	99.2	72.7	86.5	21.31	22.89	24.63	35.5	37.7	40.1	59.6	60.2	60.7
Lighting equipment.....	88.0	92.8	98.0	70.8	74.2	84.7	25.68	25.54	27.66	36.5	36.2	39.5	70.5	70.6	70.0
Silverware and plated ware.....	70.8	71.7	76.7	59.4	61.3	76.2	24.18	24.74	28.72	38.3	38.7	44.2	64.2	63.5	65.1
Smelting and refining—copper, lead and zinc.....	87.0	86.9	86.9	85.9	86.5	87.8	27.75	27.94	28.36	38.8	38.9	39.6	71.5	71.9	71.7
Lumber and allied products.....	68.7	67.3	71.1	59.8	58.8	65.2	19.69	19.10	20.18	37.9	36.9	38.6	51.3	51.2	51.3
Furniture.....	89.0	90.3	94.8	76.0	74.6	85.5	20.64	19.95	21.87	38.6	37.4	40.3	53.9	53.8	54.4
Lumber:.....	60.7	61.5	63.6	47.0	47.0	52.0	21.58	21.27	22.73	39.7	39.3	41.9	54.4	54.2	54.2
Millwork.....	59.1	59.5	63.3	52.0	51.1	55.4	18.19	17.73	18.11	37.0	36.1	37.0	49.1	49.1	48.9
Sawmills.....	75.5	77.7	83.6	65.3	68.9	76.4	23.71	23.38	25.01	35.4	35.1	37.5	66.2	66.4	66.0
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	52.9	57.0	62.6	39.6	43.4	51.6	19.30	19.52	21.18	34.6	34.8	37.9	55.4	55.8	55.8
Brick, tile, and terra cotta.....	55.4	57.7	66.4	48.1	50.5	63.2	24.63	24.96	27.33	35.0	35.5	39.0	70.4	70.4	70.1
Cement.....	102.5	105.6	108.5	108.3	113.1	118.9	25.89	26.20	26.78	35.2	35.2	36.4	73.8	74.6	73.7
Glass.....	42.6	38.8	48.5	29.1	23.9	34.8	23.96	21.54	25.00	34.0	31.4	36.0	70.4	69.0	70.4
Marble, granite, slate, and other products.....	92.9	92.4	94.9	84.3	80.7	90.1	23.03	22.20	24.12	37.7	37.0	39.0	62.5	62.9	62.7
Pottery.....	106.7	103.7	105.8	91.5	87.7	91.8	17.48	17.36	17.72	35.1	34.8	35.9	50.5	49.9	49.7
Textiles and their products.....	95.7	90.1	98.7	84.3	84.8	89.5	16.98	17.07	17.54	35.7	36.0	37.2	48.4	48.1	47.9
Fabrics.....	82.2	82.3	84.4	70.6	72.3	75.8	23.76	24.31	24.86	36.0	36.8	37.6	66.0	66.2	66.1
Carpets and rugs.....	95.5	95.9	96.8	87.4	89.0	91.5	14.92	15.18	15.43	36.2	36.8	37.6	41.1	41.2	41.0
Cotton goods.....	84.8	87.5	91.0	75.2	81.4	87.3	17.23	18.05	18.61	36.2	37.9	39.0	48.5	48.4	48.1
Cotton small wares.....															

See footnotes at end of table.

Confectionery.....	84.0	82.9	96.0	81.3	81.2	99.8	18.91	19.07	20.25	38.2	38.4	41.4	49.9	49.8	49.3
Flour.....	79.3	79.0	78.7	73.7	73.4	72.2	25.14	25.18	24.83	41.0	41.2	40.8	60.9	60.8	60.4
Ice cream.....	66.6	66.1	68.0	56.7	55.6	57.3	29.81	29.55	29.62	45.0	44.3	45.2	64.5	64.7	64.0
Slaughtering and meat packing.....	108.7	111.8	112.1	111.1	118.9	121.5	26.88	27.94	28.51	39.5	41.2	42.1	67.9	67.7	67.8
Sugar, beet.....	40.1	67.8	191.9	46.5	62.6	173.5	30.14	23.98	23.54	41.0	34.8	45.2	69.0	69.0	53.0
Sugar refining, cane.....	92.0	89.7	95.2	76.6	71.4	75.8	23.41	22.41	22.39	36.1	34.2	36.2	64.8	65.6	61.8
Tobacco manufactures.....	61.7	59.0	65.8	54.0	52.9	62.3	16.25	16.52	17.47	32.8	33.3	35.8	49.2	49.6	48.9
Chewing and smoking tobacco and snuff.....	62.4	63.7	60.8	69.7	68.1	67.2	18.11	17.33	17.90	34.5	33.2	34.2	51.9	51.8	52.5
Cigars and cigarettes.....	61.5	58.4	66.3	52.0	51.0	61.6	15.84	16.35	17.37	32.6	33.3	36.0	48.8	49.3	48.4
Paper and printing.....	114.6	115.1	118.3	108.6	110.0	116.8	28.37	28.66	29.51	37.8	38.1	39.4	78.3	78.3	78.3
Boxes, paper.....	114.8	116.6	124.9	119.4	121.6	136.9	20.75	20.85	21.92	37.3	37.6	40.1	55.7	55.7	55.0
Paper and pulp.....	113.0	114.1	115.1	116.9	117.6	122.5	25.42	25.35	26.19	39.8	40.0	41.6	63.8	63.5	63.1
Printing and publishing.....	101.2	102.6	104.1	87.0	91.6	94.1	30.05	31.30	31.63	37.9	38.9	39.6	80.4	81.7	80.9
Book and job.....	115.4	113.5	118.7	107.5	105.7	115.0	37.59	37.55	39.04	35.9	35.7	36.7	101.8	101.8	102.7
Newspapers and periodicals.....	120.7	121.0	122.3	131.1	131.0	133.4	29.31	29.22	29.61	38.4	38.4	39.0	75.5	75.6	75.1
Chemical, petroleum, and coal products.....	120.9	121.6	122.3	134.4	133.5	137.6	34.78	34.42	35.27	38.4	38.5	36.4	97.5	97.4	97.2
Petroleum refining.....	120.7	120.9	122.3	130.1	130.3	132.0	27.24	27.24	27.35	39.2	39.4	39.8	68.0	68.0	67.5
Other than petroleum refining.....	135.2	135.8	137.6	158.2	159.8	162.3	31.57	31.82	32.07	39.6	39.8	40.3	79.8	80.0	79.6
Chemicals.....	96.1	103.2	114.9	88.8	96.3	110.2	15.21	15.69	15.64	44.1	46.3	46.2	33.8	33.5	33.1
Cottonseed—oil, cake, and meal.....	119.4	118.5	118.8	130.4	129.2	132.2	24.74	24.76	25.37	39.4	39.6	40.2	60.0	59.0	60.0
Druggists' preparations.....	105.5	103.5	107.8	127.5	120.9	128.7	33.16	32.08	32.74	38.2	38.2	39.5	84.2	83.9	82.8
Explosives.....	109.3	105.1	102.2	83.7	82.5	82.2	13.81	14.27	14.65	34.2	34.0	34.2	40.4	42.0	42.8
Fertilizers.....	123.2	123.5	124.2	129.3	128.5	130.5	28.65	28.44	28.75	39.6	39.7	40.3	72.5	71.8	71.4
Paints and varnishes.....	313.3	313.5	312.2	321.3	320.4	314.0	26.33	26.24	25.82	39.1	38.8	38.8	67.4	67.6	66.5
Rayon and allied products.....	84.4	83.5	85.1	100.3	100.3	102.1	27.81	28.12	28.09	39.1	39.4	39.7	71.1	71.3	70.7
Soap.....	88.0	90.0	93.0	88.1	94.1	100.5	27.40	28.54	29.50	35.3	36.6	38.1	77.7	77.6	77.6
Rubber products.....	56.8	59.1	63.1	52.8	56.4	65.7	21.32	21.92	23.90	35.5	36.0	39.1	60.8	60.8	61.1
Rubber boots and shoes.....	73.0	73.6	74.7	80.4	85.6	89.9	32.15	33.96	35.11	33.6	35.1	36.1	96.3	96.5	97.4
Rubber tires and inner tubes.....	145.3	150.3	156.5	135.2	144.8	155.4	22.69	23.53	24.19	37.2	38.5	39.9	61.6	61.7	61.2
Rubber goods, other.....															

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—*Employment, Pay Rolls, Hours, and Earnings in Manufacturing and Nonmanufacturing Industries—Continued*
NONMANUFACTURING

[Indexes are based on 12-month average, 1929=100]

Industry	Employment index			Pay-roll index			Average weekly earnings ¹			Average hours worked per week ¹			Average hourly earnings ¹		
	Febru-ary 1940	Janu-ary 1940	De-cember 1939	Febru-ary 1940	Janu-ary 1940	De-cember 1939	Febru-ary 1940	Janu-ary 1940	De-cember 1939	Febru-ary 1940	Janu-ary 1940	De-cember 1939	Febru-ary 1940	Janu-ary 1940	De-cember 1939
Coal mining:															
Anthracite ²	52.0	51.5	51.0	32.9	52.5	26.6	\$20.76	\$33.46	\$17.16	22.2	36.8	18.9	91.6	91.9	91.2
Bituminous ²	91.8	91.8	92.6	88.0	87.0	84.3	26.02	25.71	24.65	29.8	29.4	28.1	87.7	87.6	88.9
Metalliferous mining	66.1	66.4	67.3	63.8	63.6	65.0	30.28	30.05	30.25	41.2	41.0	41.2	73.8	73.7	73.7
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining	38.1	37.8	44.0	30.9	29.6	39.2	19.88	19.19	21.99	35.6	34.4	39.5	55.6	55.6	55.9
Crude-petroleum production	63.1	63.2	63.8	58.7	58.4	59.2	34.22	33.98	34.11	38.3	37.9	37.8	87.4	87.8	88.3
Public utilities:															
Telephone and telegraph ^{3,4}	75.8	76.1	75.8	95.5	97.4	97.4	30.91	31.46	31.62	38.6	39.2	38.8	80.5	80.8	80.9
Electric light and power ^{3,4}	89.4	89.1	90.1	102.5	101.6	102.4	34.94	34.71	34.64	39.8	39.5	39.7	87.4	88.1	87.1
Street railways and busses ^{3,4}	69.2	68.8	69.0	71.9	69.0	69.8	34.23	33.18	33.29	46.6	45.5	46.0	72.1	72.0	71.5
Trade:															
Wholesale ^{3,4}	90.3	90.7	92.2	76.8	77.2	79.1	29.53	29.55	29.79	40.9	40.7	41.6	72.2	72.3	71.5
Retail ^{3,4}	87.1	87.8	104.2	79.1	80.0	91.8	21.44	21.55	20.11	42.9	43.1	43.0	54.5	54.4	51.5
Food ⁴	103.1	102.5	106.0	93.8	93.5	96.5	23.75	23.79	23.21	43.4	43.7	43.6	53.2	53.1	51.5
General merchandising ^{3,4}	88.1	89.2	146.4	80.6	82.7	125.8	18.05	18.25	17.05	38.9	39.3	40.3	46.3	46.2	41.5
Apparel ⁴	75.3	78.1	100.1	69.3	73.0	89.5	21.73	22.01	20.90	38.9	39.5	39.4	55.2	55.2	53.0
Furniture ⁴	76.7	76.4	83.1	67.1	66.7	75.2	28.52	28.39	29.16	44.0	43.8	44.2	67.5	67.2	67.4
Automotive ⁴	81.4	81.3	81.8	73.6	73.1	76.3	26.82	26.69	27.73	47.0	47.2	47.6	56.6	56.5	58.2
Lumber ⁴	69.2	70.0	73.4	63.9	64.7	69.2	25.88	25.85	26.33	42.0	41.8	42.8	63.2	63.2	62.7
Hotels (year-round) ^{3,4}	93.0	91.4	90.8	82.9	81.1	81.1	15.48	15.42	15.51	45.8	46.1	46.4	33.4	33.3	33.1
Laundries ³	95.7	96.0	95.6	82.9	83.4	83.7	17.86	17.89	17.88	43.0	42.9	42.9	41.7	41.8	41.7
Dyeing and cleaning ³	93.6	94.0	97.4	64.3	65.5	69.9	19.07	19.37	19.86	40.0	40.1	41.5	48.9	49.5	49.5
Brokers ³	-8	-5	-8	-1.1	-1.8	+1.7	36.92	37.06	37.44	(⁵)	(⁵)	(⁵)	(⁵)	(⁵)	(⁵)
Insurance ³	+1.1	+1.1	-6.9	+3	+6	+9	36.89	36.70	36.34	(⁵)	(⁵)	(⁵)	(⁵)	(⁵)	(⁵)
Building construction ³	+1.0	-16.7	-6.9	-1.8	-20.1	-7.0	28.84	28.74	30.91	30.1	30.8	32.8	96.3	97.0	94.3

¹ Revised series. Mimeographed sheets, giving averages by years, 1932 to 1938, inclusive, and by months, January 1938 to September 1939, inclusive, available on request. Average hours and average hourly earnings are computed from data supplied by a smaller number of establishments than average weekly earnings, as not all reporting firms furnish man-hours. The figures are not strictly comparable from month to month because of changes in the size and composition of the reporting sample.

² Indexes adjusted to 1933 census. Comparable series back to January 1929 presented in January 1938 issue of Employment and Pay Rolls.

³ Average weekly earnings, hourly earnings, and hours not strictly comparable with figures published in pamphlets prior to January 1938 as they now exclude corporation officers, executives, and other employees whose duties are mainly supervisory.

⁴ Retail-trade indexes adjusted to 1933 census and public-utility indexes to 1937 census. Not comparable to indexes in January 1940 issue of Employment and Pay Rolls or April

1940 Monthly Labor Review. Comparable series for earlier months available upon request.

⁵ Covers street railways and trolley and motorbus operations of subsidiary, affiliated, and successor companies; formerly "electric-railroad and motorbus operation and maintenance."

⁶ Indexes adjusted to 1933 census. Comparable series in November 1934 and subsequent issues of Employment and Pay Rolls.

⁷ Cash payments only; additional value of board, room, and tips not included.

⁸ Indexes of employment and pay rolls are not available; percentage changes from preceding month substituted.

⁹ Not available.

¹⁰ Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.

TABLE 2.—Indexes of Employment and Pay Rolls in Selected Manufacturing¹ and Non-manufacturing² Industries, February 1939 to February 1940, Inclusive

Industry	Employment													
	1939												1940	
	Av. 1939	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May	June	July	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.
Manufacturing														
All industries.....	96.8	93.6	94.3	94.1	93.0	93.4	93.5	96.3	100.2	103.6	103.8	104.1	101.5	101.4
Durable goods ³	87.8	83.3	84.1	84.8	84.0	84.6	83.0	83.9	89.8	96.1	98.2	100.0	97.4	96.5
Nondurable goods ⁴	105.5	103.5	104.0	103.0	101.6	101.8	103.5	108.1	110.2	110.8	109.2	108.0	105.4	106.1
Nonmanufacturing														
Anthracite mining ⁵	50.6	52.2	51.7	53.0	52.6	51.2	44.7	48.5	49.4	51.9	51.3	51.0	51.5	52.0
Bituminous-coal mining ⁵	78.6	88.6	87.4	25.9	47.9	78.3	79.4	81.4	85.4	93.0	94.9	92.6	91.8	91.8
Metalliferous mining.....	62.7	60.9	61.0	61.5	61.9	61.6	60.4	60.4	62.9	65.3	66.5	67.3	66.4	66.1
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	44.6	37.9	40.1	43.0	45.6	47.3	47.5	48.1	47.9	48.0	47.1	44.0	37.8	38.1
Crude-petroleum production.....	65.8	66.4	66.2	65.8	66.1	67.0	67.3	66.7	65.0	64.3	63.8	63.8	63.2	63.1
Telephone and telegraph ⁶	75.8	74.3	74.4	75.1	75.8	76.4	76.5	76.6	76.4	76.5	76.1	75.8	76.1	75.8
Electric light and power ⁶	89.0	86.9	87.0	87.7	88.2	89.2	90.0	90.6	90.6	90.4	90.3	90.1	89.1	89.4
Street railways and buses ⁷	69.0	68.7	68.9	68.5	68.9	69.3	69.1	69.2	69.2	69.5	69.3	69.0	68.8	69.2
Wholesale trade.....	89.2	87.9	87.4	87.3	87.2	88.1	87.9	89.0	90.5	92.4	92.1	92.2	90.7	90.3
Retail trade ⁸	89.8	84.9	86.9	88.5	88.8	89.4	87.2	86.3	90.5	91.7	93.3	104.2	87.8	87.1
Year-round hotels ⁸	92.0	92.6	92.7	93.2	93.9	92.8	90.3	89.8	91.3	92.9	91.8	90.8	91.4	93.0
Laundries ⁸	95.9	92.8	92.9	93.5	95.5	98.7	100.0	99.1	97.8	96.0	95.6	95.6	96.0	95.7
Dyeing and cleaning ⁸	101.3	92.1	95.4	102.2	107.0	110.1	106.5	102.7	105.2	105.1	97.8	97.4	94.0	93.6
Pay rolls														
Manufacturing														
All industries.....	90.8	86.0	87.6	85.5	85.0	86.5	84.4	89.7	93.8	101.6	101.6	103.7	98.3	97.8
Durable goods ³	85.2	77.7	79.4	79.5	78.8	80.7	76.0	81.5	87.8	99.6	100.9	104.6	98.2	96.6
Nondurable goods ⁴	97.0	95.3	96.7	92.2	91.9	93.0	93.7	99.0	100.5	103.9	102.4	102.8	98.5	99.1
Nonmanufacturing														
Anthracite mining ⁵	39.5	45.2	34.2	43.4	57.0	36.1	25.2	33.8	40.1	52.2	42.0	26.6	52.5	32.9
Bituminous-coal mining ⁵	69.9	81.2	77.8	17.6	20.4	66.5	64.5	74.6	80.2	97.6	96.3	84.3	87.0	88.0
Metalliferous mining.....	56.0	53.4	53.6	52.6	54.1	53.8	48.5	53.0	55.1	63.4	63.9	65.0	63.6	63.8
Quarrying and nonmetallic mining.....	38.7	29.7	33.1	35.9	39.7	41.7	40.9	42.9	42.7	45.6	42.9	39.2	29.6	30.9
Crude-petroleum production.....	61.0	62.7	61.3	60.8	61.2	62.5	61.9	62.0	60.8	58.8	59.6	59.2	58.4	58.7
Telephone and telegraph ⁶	95.6	93.6	93.8	94.0	95.7	95.7	96.6	96.3	96.9	97.2	96.4	97.4	97.4	95.5
Electric light and power ⁶	100.4	97.7	98.2	98.3	99.9	101.2	101.1	102.2	102.2	102.0	102.5	102.4	101.6	102.5
Street railways and buses ⁷	69.5	68.7	69.3	68.4	68.9	70.0	69.4	69.8	69.2	71.2	69.4	69.8	69.0	71.9
Wholesale trade.....	76.6	74.6	74.7	74.8	74.9	75.8	75.8	76.2	78.0	80.3	79.0	79.1	77.2	76.8
Retail trade ⁸	80.8	76.5	77.7	79.6	79.9	81.1	79.5	78.0	80.9	83.2	83.6	91.8	80.0	79.1
Year-round hotels ⁸	81.2	82.8	81.1	81.9	82.4	82.0	79.1	79.2	80.4	82.2	81.8	81.1	81.1	82.9
Laundries ⁸	83.1	78.6	79.3	79.9	83.9	86.9	88.0	85.9	84.5	83.9	82.9	83.7	83.4	82.9
Dyeing and cleaning ⁸	73.6	63.2	67.7	73.3	83.0	84.2	77.1	73.0	78.3	77.3	70.8	69.9	65.5	64.3

¹ 3-year average 1923-25=100—adjusted to 1937 Census of Manufactures.² 12-month average for 1929=100. Comparable indexes for wholesale trade, quarrying, metal mining, and crude-petroleum production are in November 1934 and subsequent issues of Employment and Pay rolls, or in February 1935 and subsequent issues of Monthly Labor Review. For other nonmanufacturing indexes see notes 5 and 6.³ Includes: Iron and steel, machinery, transportation equipment, nonferrous metals, lumber and allied products, and stone, clay, and glass products.⁴ Includes: Textiles and their products, leather and its manufactures, food and kindred products, tobacco manufactures, paper and printing, chemicals and allied products, products of petroleum and coal, rubber products, and a number of miscellaneous industries not included in other groups.⁵ Indexes have been adjusted to the 1935 census. Comparable series from January 1929 forward are presented in January 1938 and subsequent issues of Employment and Pay Rolls.⁶ Retail-trade indexes adjusted to 1935 census and public-utility indexes to 1937 census. Not comparable with indexes published in pamphlets prior to January 1940 or in Monthly Labor Review prior to April 1940. Comparable series January 1929 to December 1939 available in mimeographed form.⁷ Covers street railways and trolley and motorbus operations of subsidiary, affiliated, and successor companies.

9 Not available.
 10 Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.
 11 Indexes whose units are mainly supervisory.
 12 Indexes whose units are mainly supervisory.
 13 Indexes whose units are mainly supervisory.
 14 Indexes whose units are mainly supervisory.
 15 Indexes whose units are mainly supervisory.

TREND OF INDUSTRIAL AND BUSINESS EMPLOYMENT, BY STATES

A comparison of employment and pay rolls, by States and geographic divisions, in January and February 1940, is shown in table 3 for all groups combined and for all manufacturing industries combined based on data supplied by reporting establishments. The percentage changes shown, unless otherwise noted, are unweighted—that is, the industries included in the manufacturing group and in the total for all groups have not been weighted according to their relative importance.

The totals for all manufacturing industries combined include figures for miscellaneous manufacturing industries in addition to the 90 manufacturing industries presented in table 1. The totals for all groups combined include all manufacturing industries, each of the nonmanufacturing industries presented in table 1 (except building construction), and seasonal hotels.

Similar comparisons showing only percentage changes are available in mimeographed form for all groups combined, all manufacturing, anthracite mining, bituminous-coal mining, metalliferous mining, quarrying and nonmetallic mining, crude-petroleum production, public utilities, wholesale trade, retail trade, hotels, laundries, dyeing and cleaning, and brokerage and insurance.

TABLE 3.—Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in January and February 1940, by Geographic Divisions and by States

[Figures in italics are not compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, but are taken from reports issued by cooperating State organizations]

Geographic division and State	Total—all groups					Manufacturing				
	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll February 1940	Percentage change from January 1940	Amount of pay roll (1 week) February 1940	Percentage change from January 1940	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll February 1940	Percentage change from January 1940	Amount of pay roll (1 week) February 1940	Percentage change from January 1940
				<i>Dollars</i>					<i>Dollars</i>	
New England	12,941	941,273	+3.2	22,258,308	+1.2	3,574	637,263	+0.1	14,491,717	-2.7
Maine.....	826	57,804	-5	1,231,562	-1	275	47,867	-4	990,212	+1
New Hampshire.....	627	42,296	+5	908,276	+7	206	35,348	+8	741,695	+1.0
Vermont.....	489	18,322	-2	422,691	+2.5	150	11,441	+7	261,696	+4.6
Massachusetts.....	17,439	506,273	+6.2	11,983,599	+4.1	1,798	282,197	-1	6,301,764	-5.1
Rhode Island.....	1,163	96,505	-7	2,063,876	-4.8	419	77,575	-6	1,573,264	-6.5
Connecticut.....	2,397	220,073	+2	5,646,304	-2.2	726	182,835	+7	4,623,086	-2.4
Middle Atlantic	31,621	2,225,350	+1	59,575,545	-2.2	6,873	1,348,367	+2	35,797,048	-1.0
New York.....	19,129	962,292	+1	26,873,001	-8	2,795	480,311	+1.3	13,216,660	+6
New Jersey.....	3,935	387,724	+4	10,408,023	+3	1,644	312,036	+6	8,243,551	+
Pennsylvania.....	8,557	875,334	-1	22,294,521	-4.9	2,434	556,020	-7	14,336,837	-5.1
East North Central	25,593	2,252,992	-5	63,689,476	-7	8,256	1,714,741	-6	49,772,437	-1.1
Ohio.....	7,562	572,806	-2	15,746,031	-1.8	2,345	435,771	-3	12,235,046	-2.4
Indiana.....	2,776	275,661	-4	7,402,254	-9	1,059	226,244	-1	6,220,421	-4
Illinois.....	6,597	632,186	-1	17,198,460	-(¹)	2,378	425,793	-1	11,572,798	+1
Michigan.....	4,400	530,439	-8	16,966,724	-4	1,081	456,851	-7	15,201,224	-9
Wisconsin.....	4,458	241,900	-1.6	6,376,017	-6	1,453	170,082	-1.6	4,542,944	-1

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 3.—Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in January and February 1940, by Geographic Divisions and by States—Continued

[Figures in italics are not compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, but are taken from reports issued by cooperating State organizations]

Geographic division and State	Total—all groups					Manufacturing				
	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll February 1940	Percentage change from January 1940	Amount of pay roll (1 week) February 1940	Percentage change from January 1940	Number of establishments	Number on pay roll February 1940	Percentage change from January 1940	Amount of pay roll (1 week) February 1940	Percentage change from January 1940
				<i>Dollars</i>					<i>Dollars</i>	
West North Central	12,423	450,209	-0.8	11,286,719	-0.8	2,400	221,721	-0.4	5,491,009	-0.5
Minnesota	² 2,632	123,500	³ -1.2	⁴ 3,361,094	⁵ -.7	636	51,506	-.2	1,367,899	+1.0
Iowa	1,975	64,475	-.6	1,573,774	-1.7	349	36,625	-.7	923,919	-2.0
Missouri	3,147	167,797	+2	4,090,377	-.1	783	95,053	+3	2,223,133	+1
North Dakota	505	4,439	-.7	108,006	-3.6	28	416	+1.2	10,669	+1.1
South Dakota	475	10,149	-.8	275,485	+9	29	4,719	+4	123,390	+1.2
Nebraska	1,315	27,060	-3.0	625,786	-2.7	135	9,074	-4.4	229,114	-6.2
Kansas	² 2,374	52,789	¹⁰ -.2	¹¹ 1,252,197	-.6	440	24,328	-2.0	612,845	-1.7
South Atlantic	10,627	926,720	-.3	18,740,510	+1	2,930	638,960	-.2	11,933,493	-.3
Delaware	240	16,402	-1.0	410,943	+8	78	11,341	-1.0	278,851	+5
Maryland	1,555	150,167	-1.0	³ 3,776,822	-1.2	643	109,403	³ -.4	² 2,740,701	³ -1.4
District of Columbia	1,003	39,936	+3	1,093,294	+6	39	3,113	+2	108,184	+4
Virginia	1,949	124,153	-.1	2,464,821	+2	450	87,159	+1	1,693,214	-.1
West Virginia	1,227	142,438	-1.3	3,667,124	-.2	206	53,786	-1.6	1,351,892	-2.5
North Carolina	1,554	175,593	-.2	2,806,381	+1.1	677	160,424	-.1	2,544,612	+1.2
South Carolina	801	98,648	-.6	1,488,620	+2	276	90,881	-.7	1,340,734	-(¹)
Georgia	1,357	125,272	-.1	2,055,735	-.5	381	98,623	-.3	1,483,199	-1.0
Florida	941	54,111	+4.6	976,770	+5.0	180	24,230	+9.4	392,106	+10.6
East South Central	4,761	319,107	+4	6,142,321	+6	1,031	201,641	+4	3,596,658	-.6
Kentucky	1,520	87,041	-.1	1,925,431	+1	289	34,392	-.3	703,300	-4.1
Tennessee	1,371	105,182	+5	1,893,300	-.6	364	78,441	+6	1,382,947	-1.7
Alabama	1,354	104,834	+1	1,976,161	+1.5	285	73,564	-.3	1,292,616	+1.3
Mississippi	516	22,050	+3.5	347,429	+4.5	93	15,244	+4.9	217,795	+6.8
West South Central	4,975	304,996	+2	4,563,078	+4	1,225	106,121	+(¹)	2,271,007	-.4
Arkansas	¹¹ 788	25,475	+3	454,649	-.8	247	17,764	-.1	289,540	-1.8
Louisiana	1,018	55,562	+3	1,110,103	+3	230	29,540	-.8	548,006	-1.1
Oklahoma	1,308	38,098	-.2	933,455	+1.0	136	10,489	-.3	231,990	+1.7
Texas	1,861	85,861	+3	2,084,871	+5	612	48,328	³ +1.1	1,201,471	³ -1.5
Mountain	3,964	120,889	-.6	3,247,343	-1.0	548	32,206	-2.0	844,650	-.3
Montana	610	18,866	-1.0	557,989	-1.1	74	4,423	-5.1	120,509	-3.8
Idaho	484	9,846	-1.6	257,969	+1.9	61	2,145	-6.3	55,297	+1.9
Wyoming	329	7,816	-.2	230,567	+2.7	34	1,048	+6	36,164	+6.0
Colorado	1,120	39,830	-.6	1,036,296	-2.7	198	15,427	-.1	406,162	-.6
New Mexico	278	5,777	-2.2	127,446	-1.7	29	807	-10.3	17,298	-4.8
Arizona	415	15,331	+1.2	428,670	+1	35	2,556	+2.2	63,617	+2.8
Utah	558	20,966	-1.1	530,145	-1.7	103	5,542	-4.4	137,908	+2
Nevada	170	2,457	+8	78,291	+4.3	14	258	+2.4	7,695	+6.7
Pacific	10,831	482,192	+3	13,982,392	+1.2	2,702	255,654	+5	7,251,437	+1.6
Washington	2,721	92,985	-.2	2,601,999	+8	532	52,916	+1	1,489,483	+1.6
Oregon	1,290	44,392	-.9	1,186,307	+2.8	278	25,071	-.3	652,713	+4.1
California	¹² 6,820	344,815	+6	10,194,086	+1.1	1,892	177,667	+8	5,109,241	+1.3

¹ Includes banks and trust companies; construction, municipal, agricultural, and office employment; amusement and recreation; professional services; and trucking and handling.² Includes laundering and cleaning; and water, light, and power.³ Weighted percentage change.⁴ Includes automobile and miscellaneous services; restaurants; and building and contracting.⁵ Less than 1/10 of 1 percent.⁶ Includes construction but not public works.⁷ Does not include logging.⁸ Includes banks; real estate; pipe-line transportation; motor transportation (other than operation and maintenance); water transportation; hospitals and clinics; and personal, business, mechanical repair, and miscellaneous services.⁹ Includes financial institutions, miscellaneous services, and restaurants.¹⁰ Weighted percentage change, including hired farm labor.¹¹ Includes automobile dealers and garages; and sand, gravel, and building stone.¹² Includes banks, insurance, and office employment.

INDUSTRIAL AND BUSINESS EMPLOYMENT IN PRINCIPAL METROPOLITAN AREAS

A comparison of employment and pay rolls in January and February 1940 is made in table 4 for 13 metropolitan areas, each of which had a population of 100,000 or over in 1930. Cities within these areas but having a population of 100,000 or over, are not included. Footnotes to the table specify which cities are excluded. Data concerning them have been prepared in a supplementary tabulation which is available on request. The figures represent reports from cooperating establishments and cover both full- and part-time workers in the manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries presented in table 1, with the exception of building construction, and include also miscellaneous industries.

Revisions made in the figures after they have gone to press, chiefly because of late reports by cooperating firms, are incorporated in the supplementary tabulation mentioned above. This supplementary tabulation covers these 13 metropolitan areas as well as other metropolitan areas and cities having a population of 100,000 or more according to the 1930 Census of Population.

TABLE 4.—Comparison of Employment and Pay Rolls in Identical Establishments in January and February 1940, by Principal Metropolitan Areas

Metropolitan area	Number of establishments February 1940	Number on pay roll February 1940	Percentage change from January 1940	Amount of pay roll (1 week) February 1940	Percentage change from January 1940
New York ¹	13,935	682,413	+0.6	\$19,065,280	-0.1
Chicago ²	4,345	438,019	- .7	12,200,175	-1.2
Philadelphia ³	2,355	216,098	+ .4	5,927,926	+ .5
Detroit.....	1,639	339,246	- .8	11,595,683	- .4
Los Angeles ⁴	2,866	168,557	+2.0	4,882,690	+1.7
Cleveland.....	1,332	124,828	- .2	3,603,386	-1.5
St. Louis.....	1,383	125,671	+ .3	3,161,262	+ .4
Baltimore.....	1,161	115,074	-1.2	2,894,202	-1.6
Boston ⁵	2,793	185,396	- .1	4,672,688	-1.1
Pittsburgh.....	1,192	192,242	- .3	5,511,845	-3.1
San Francisco ⁶	1,621	78,175	- .6	2,395,683	+2.1
Buffalo.....	770	77,106	-(⁷)	2,120,047	-1.2
Milwaukee.....	982	97,322	-2.2	2,809,658	-1.1

¹ Does not include Elizabeth, Jersey City, Newark, nor Paterson, N. J., nor Yonkers, N. Y.

² Does not include Gary, Ind.

³ Does not include Camden, N. J.

⁴ Does not include Long Beach, Calif.

⁵ Does not include Cambridge, Lynn, or Somerville, Mass.

⁶ Does not include Oakland, Calif.

⁷ Less than $\frac{1}{10}$ of 1 percent.

Building Operations

SUMMARY OF BUILDING CONSTRUCTION IN PRINCIPAL CITIES, MARCH 1940 ¹

PERMIT valuations for new residential building construction were 27.1 percent higher in March than in February. Increases in new residential construction were reported in all city size groups. New nonresidential construction increased 14.3 percent from February to March and additions, alterations, and repairs to existing structures showed a gain of 8.8 percent. Building-permit valuations for all classes of construction rose 20.6 percent in March.

Over the year period, permit valuations for new residential building construction showed an increase of 4.4 percent. On the other hand March permit valuations for new nonresidential building construction were 16.3 lower than in the corresponding month in 1939. Permit valuations for additions, alterations, and repairs to existing structures fell 13.9 percent. As measured by the value of permits issued, all classes of building construction showed a loss of 4.6 percent over the year period.

Comparison of March 1940 With February 1940 and March 1939

A summary of building construction in 2,068 identical cities in March 1940, February 1940, and March 1939 is given in table 1.

TABLE 1.—Summary of Building Construction for Which Permits Were Issued in 2,068 Identical Cities, March 1940

Class of construction	Number of buildings			Permit valuation		
	March 1940	Percentage change from—		March 1940	Percentage change from—	
		February 1940	March 1939		February 1940	March 1939
All construction.....	59,179	+41.7	-4.0	\$166,912,434	+20.6	-4.6
New residential.....	19,910	+46.5	+7.4	99,574,123	+27.1	+4.4
New nonresidential.....	9,252	+47.0	-9.8	41,576,909	+14.3	-16.3
Additions, alterations, and repairs.....	30,017	+37.2	-8.5	25,761,402	+8.8	-13.9

¹ More detailed information by geographic divisions and individual cities is given in a separate pamphlet entitled "Building Construction, March 1940," copies of which will be furnished upon request.

A summary of permit valuations of housekeeping dwellings and the number of families provided for in new dwellings in 2,068 identical cities, having a population of 1,000 and over, is shown in table 2 for March 1940 compared with February 1940 and March 1939.

TABLE 2.—*Permit Valuation of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in 2,068 Identical Cities, March 1940*

Type of dwelling	Permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in new dwellings		
	March 1940	Percentage change from—		March 1940	Percentage change from—	
		February 1940	March 1939		February 1940	March 1939
All types.....	\$98, 833, 023	+26. 8	+4. 9	27, 763	+24. 9	+7. 2
1-family.....	70, 978, 736	+49. 8	+3. 9	18, 429	+51. 6	+6. 8
2-family ¹	3, 249, 690	+17. 7	— . 4	1, 308	+12. 6	+3. 0
Multifamily ²	24, 604, 597	—11. 5	+8. 4	8, 026	—9. 9	+9. 0

¹ Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.

² Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

Construction During First 3 Months, 1939 and 1940

Cumulative totals for the first 3 months of 1940 compared with the same months of the preceding year are shown in table 3. The data are based on reports received from cities having a population of 1,000 and over.

TABLE 3.—*Permit Valuation of Building Construction in Reporting Cities of 1,000 Population and Over, First 3 Months, 1939 and 1940*

Class of construction	Permit valuation of building construction, first 3 months of—		Percentage change
	1940	1939	
All construction.....	\$421, 836, 185	\$466, 388, 730	—9. 6
New residential.....	240, 846, 074	235, 036, 767	+2. 5
New nonresidential.....	111, 537, 271	149, 144, 550	—25. 2
Additions, alterations, and repairs.....	69, 452, 840	82, 207, 413	—15. 5

Table 4 presents the permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings and number of family-dwelling units provided in cities with a population of 1,000 and over for the first 3 months of 1939 and 1940.

TABLE 4.—Permit Valuation of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Family-Dwelling Units, First 3 Months, 1939 and 1940, by Type of Dwelling

Type of dwelling	Permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings, first 3 months of—		Percentage change	Number of family-dwelling units, first 3 months of—		Percentage change
	1940	1939		1940	1939	
All types.....	\$238, 923, 474	\$232, 349, 786	+2. 8	67, 303	64, 992	+3. 6
1-family.....	155, 350, 577	155, 120, 585	+ .1	40, 178	40, 017	+ .4
2-family ¹	8, 133, 947	9, 334, 408	-12. 9	3, 389	3, 513	-3. 5
Multifamily ²	75, 438, 950	67, 894, 793	+11. 1	23, 736	21, 462	+10. 6

¹ Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.² Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.*Analysis by Size of City, March 1940*

Table 5 shows the value of permits issued for building construction in March 1940 compared with February 1940 and March 1939 by size of city and by class of construction.

TABLE 5.—Permit Valuation of Building Construction in 2,068 Identical Cities, by Size of City, March 1940

Size of city	Number of cities	Total construction			New residential buildings			
		Permit valuation, March 1940	Percentage change from—		Permit valuation, March 1940	Percentage change from—		
			February 1940	March 1939		February 1940	March 1939	
Total, all reporting cities.....	2, 068	\$166, 912, 434	+20. 6	—4. 6	\$99, 574, 123	+27. 1	+4. 4	
500,000 and over.....	14	58, 203, 877	+8. 7	+1. 1	33, 692, 585	+12. 2	—6. 5	
100,000 and under 500,000.....	79	38, 727, 786	+15. 3	+5. 7	23, 791, 131	+32. 7	+10. 3	
50,000 and under 100,000.....	95	15, 752, 009	+17. 0	—14. 0	8, 358, 090	+15. 5	+12. 3	
25,000 and under 50,000.....	165	15, 286, 823	+52. 2	—3. 9	8, 240, 692	+50. 7	+12. 3	
10,000 and under 25,000.....	429	19, 783, 153	+41. 5	—18. 1	11, 674, 102	+32. 5	+8. 3	
5,000 and under 10,000.....	380	10, 237, 074	+22. 8	—12. 6	7, 585, 613	+38. 6	+17. 8	
2,500 and under 5,000.....	438	5, 865, 774	+61. 5	—21. 1	4, 052, 950	+88. 1	+11. 0	
1,000 and under 2,500.....	468	3, 055, 938	+68. 3	—5. 6	2, 178, 960	+73. 3	+3. 2	
		New nonresidential buildings		Additions, alterations, and repairs				
		Permit valuation, March 1940	Percentage change from—		Permit valuation, March 1940	Percentage change from—		Population (census of 1930)
			February 1940	March 1939		February 1940	March 1939	
Total, all reporting cities.....		\$41, 576, 909	+14. 3	—16. 3	\$25, 761, 402	+8. 8	—13. 9	60, 100, 800
500,000 and over.....	14	648, 659	+6. 0	+20. 4	9, 862, 633	+1. 7	+5. 3	21, 449, 853
100,000 and under 500,000.....	79	523, 298	—9. 7	+13. 3	5, 413, 357	+6. 0	—19. 0	15, 017, 880
50,000 and under 100,000.....	95	4, 225, 203	+1. 3	—35. 5	3, 168, 716	+53. 6	—26. 7	6, 326, 440
25,000 and under 50,000.....	165	4, 567, 940	+127. 7	—16. 5	2, 478, 191	—3. 5	—19. 9	5, 765, 215
10,000 and under 25,000.....	429	5, 184, 672	+103. 6	—44. 4	2, 924, 379	+11. 4	—28. 0	6, 553, 204
5,000 and under 10,000.....	380	1, 455, 942	—23. 5	—61. 8	1, 195, 519	+24. 5	—18. 5	2, 674, 496
2,500 and under 5,000.....	438	1, 347, 861	+32. 7	—57. 5	464, 963	+0. 7	—23. 9	1, 564, 423
1,000 and under 2,500.....	468	623, 334	+74. 1	—22. 2	253, 644	+26. 6	—21. 3	749, 289

The permit valuation of housekeeping dwellings in the 2,068 identical cities reporting for February and March 1940, together with the number of family-dwelling units provided in new dwellings, by size of city, is given in table 6.

TABLE 6.—*Permit Valuation of Housekeeping Dwellings and Number of Families Provided for in 2,068 Identical Cities, by Size of City, February and March 1940*

Size of city	Permit valuation of house- keeping dwellings			Number of families provided for in—							
	March 1940	February 1940	Per- centage change	All types		1-family dwellings		2-family dwellings ¹		Multi- family dwellings ¹	
				Mar. 1940	Feb. 1940	Mar. 1940	Feb. 1940	Mar. 1940	Feb. 1940	Mar. 1940	Feb. 1940
Total, all reporting cities	\$98,833,023	\$77,947,198	+26.8	27,763	22,228	18,429	12,154	1,308	1,162	8,026	8,912
500,000 and over	33,366,585	29,835,652	+11.8	8,785	7,886	4,481	3,369	267	398	4,037	4,119
100,000 and under 500,000	23,771,131	17,934,086	+32.5	7,028	5,397	4,089	2,696	384	253	2,555	2,448
50,000 and under 100,000	8,030,890	7,219,298	+11.2	2,438	2,176	1,749	1,143	168	112	521	921
25,000 and under 50,000	8,238,892	5,468,953	+50.6	2,475	1,824	1,882	1,075	184	158	409	591
10,000 and under 25,000	11,647,102	8,655,420	+34.5	3,282	2,448	2,936	1,823	133	103	213	522
5,000 and under 10,000	7,560,113	5,440,561	+39.0	2,131	1,533	1,790	1,177	107	70	234	286
2,500 and under 5,000	4,048,950	2,139,561	+89.2	1,018	610	955	551	45	41	18	18
1,000 and under 2,500	2,169,360	1,250,667	+73.5	606	354	547	320	20	27	39	7

¹ Includes 1- and 2-family dwellings with stores.

² Includes multifamily dwellings with stores.

The information on building permits issued is based on reports received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from 2,068 identical cities having a population of 1,000 and over.

The information is collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from local building officials, except in the States of Illinois, Massachusetts, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, where the State departments of labor collected and forward the information to the Bureau. In New York and North Carolina the information from the smaller cities is collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from local building officials and the information from the larger cities is collected and forwarded to the Bureau by the State departments of labor. The permit valuations shown in this report are estimates made by prospective builders on applying for permits to build. No land costs are included. Only building projects within the corporate limits of the cities enumerated are included in the Bureau's tabulation. The data collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics show, in addition to private and municipal construction, the value of buildings for which contracts were awarded by the Federal and State Governments in the cities included in the report. For March 1940 the value of these buildings amounted to \$18,828,000, for February 1940 to \$22,947,000, and for March 1939 to \$8,821,000.

Construction from Public Funds

The value of contracts awarded and force-account work started during March 1940, February 1940, and March 1939 on construction projects financed wholly or partially from various Federal funds is shown in table 7.

TABLE 7.—*Value of Contracts Awarded and Force-Account Work Started on Projects Financed from Federal Funds, February and March 1940 and March 1939*¹

Federal agency	Contracts awarded and force-account work started		
	March 1940	February 1940 ²	March 1939 ²
Total.....	\$101,685,713	\$63,829,981	\$228,494,419
Public Works Administration:			
Federal.....	486,537	107,839	2,771,473
Non-federal:			
N. I. R. A.....	391,229	108,320	1,520,163
E. R. A. A.....	329,240	384,630	1,712,297
P. W. A. A. 1938.....	5,830,972	6,889,742	76,665,269
Federal Agency projects under WPA.....	146,079	156,500	13,605,847
Regular Federal appropriations.....	82,765,391	43,753,609	127,230,686
U. S. Housing Authority.....	11,736,265	12,429,341	4,988,684

¹ Preliminary, subject to revision.

² Revised.

The value of public-building and highway construction awards financed wholly from appropriations from State funds, as reported by the various State governments for March 1940, February 1940, and March 1939 is shown in the following statement:

	Public buildings	Highway construction
March 1940.....	\$602,000	\$6,642,258
February 1940.....	2,994,915	7,877,956
March 1939.....	1,705,114	993,021

Retail Prices

FOOD PRICES IN MARCH 1940

THE retail cost of food declined 1.3 percent between February and March, due largely to lower prices for butter and eggs. Costs for major commodity groups tended downward with the exception of meats, which advanced slightly, and cereals and bakery products, which showed no change.

The all-foods index for March was 77.1 percent of the 1923-25 average. It was 0.9 percent higher than in March 1939 when the index was 76.4. Increases for the year for five of the eight commodity groups ranged from 0.7 percent for eggs to 7.4 percent for dairy products. Meats, which have advanced in price recently, were still 5.7 percent lower than in March 1939. Other decreases for the year period were 5.2 percent for fats and oils and 1.4 percent for beverages.

Details by Commodity Groups

The cost of cereals and bakery products, which has been moving upward for the past 6 months, showed no change between February and March. A further advance for flour, amounting to 0.2 percent, and an increase of 2.2 percent for corn meal were offset by decreases of 0.7 percent and 0.6 percent, respectively, for macaroni and soda crackers.

Meat costs, reversing the trend of the preceding 5 months, moved upward 0.6 percent in March, due to advances of 6.1 percent for pork chops, 5.5 percent for leg of lamb and lamb rib chops, and 2.9 percent for roasting chickens. Prices of cured pork products declined, the decreases ranging from 1.2 percent for whole ham to 3.4 percent for salt pork. Beef items showed fractional decreases while veal dropped 2.1 percent.

Dairy products decreased 1.7 percent between February and March, due entirely to lower prices for butter. Butter prices were lower in all of the 51 cities, with the average decrease amounting to 5.5 percent. This was contrary to the slight upward tendency usually shown in March.

Egg prices, following the seasonal trend, declined 16.4 percent to approximately the same level as in March 1939. The decrease was

general, with lower prices reported for all cities. In 13 cities the reductions amounted to more than 30 percent.

A decrease of 0.3 percent in the index for fruits and vegetables between February and March reflected price changes of important fresh items in the group. Potatoes declined 2.6 percent. Cabbage prices, which usually advance at this time of the year, decreased 9.1 percent. Other decreases for fresh items were 31.4 percent for spinach, 5.5 percent for carrots, and 2.4 percent for sweetpotatoes. The limited number of quotations available for green beans indicated an average increase of 15.0 percent for the month. Prices of bananas and apples advanced 1.6 and 6.5 percent, respectively. Onions increased 2.7 percent, and lettuce prices were 3.8 percent higher. There were no changes in prices of canned items. In the dried fruits and vegetables group an advance of 3.1 percent for prunes was partially offset by a decrease of 1.5 percent in the price of navy beans.

In the beverage group, coffee declined 0.9 percent while increases of 0.6 percent for tea and 1.1 percent for cocoa were reported.

Fats and oils moved downward 0.7 percent as a result of lower prices for lard, shortening in tin containers, and oleomargarine. Lard prices, which declined for the sixth consecutive month, were 2.1 percent lower than in February and approximately 12 percent lower than a year ago. Smaller decreases were shown for shortening in tin containers and for oleomargarine.

A further decrease of 0.8 percent in the average price of sugar continued the decline of the 5 preceding months.

Indexes of retail food costs for March and February 1940, together with indexes for March 1939, 1933, and 1929, are shown in table 1. The accompanying chart shows the trend in the cost of all foods and of each major commodity group for the period from January 1929 to March 1940, inclusive.

Average prices for each of 61 foods for 51 cities combined are shown in table 2 for March and February 1940 and March 1939.

TABLE 1.—*Indexes of Retail Food Costs in 51 Large Cities Combined,¹ by Commodity Groups, March and February 1940 and March 1939, 1933, and 1929*
[1923-25=100]

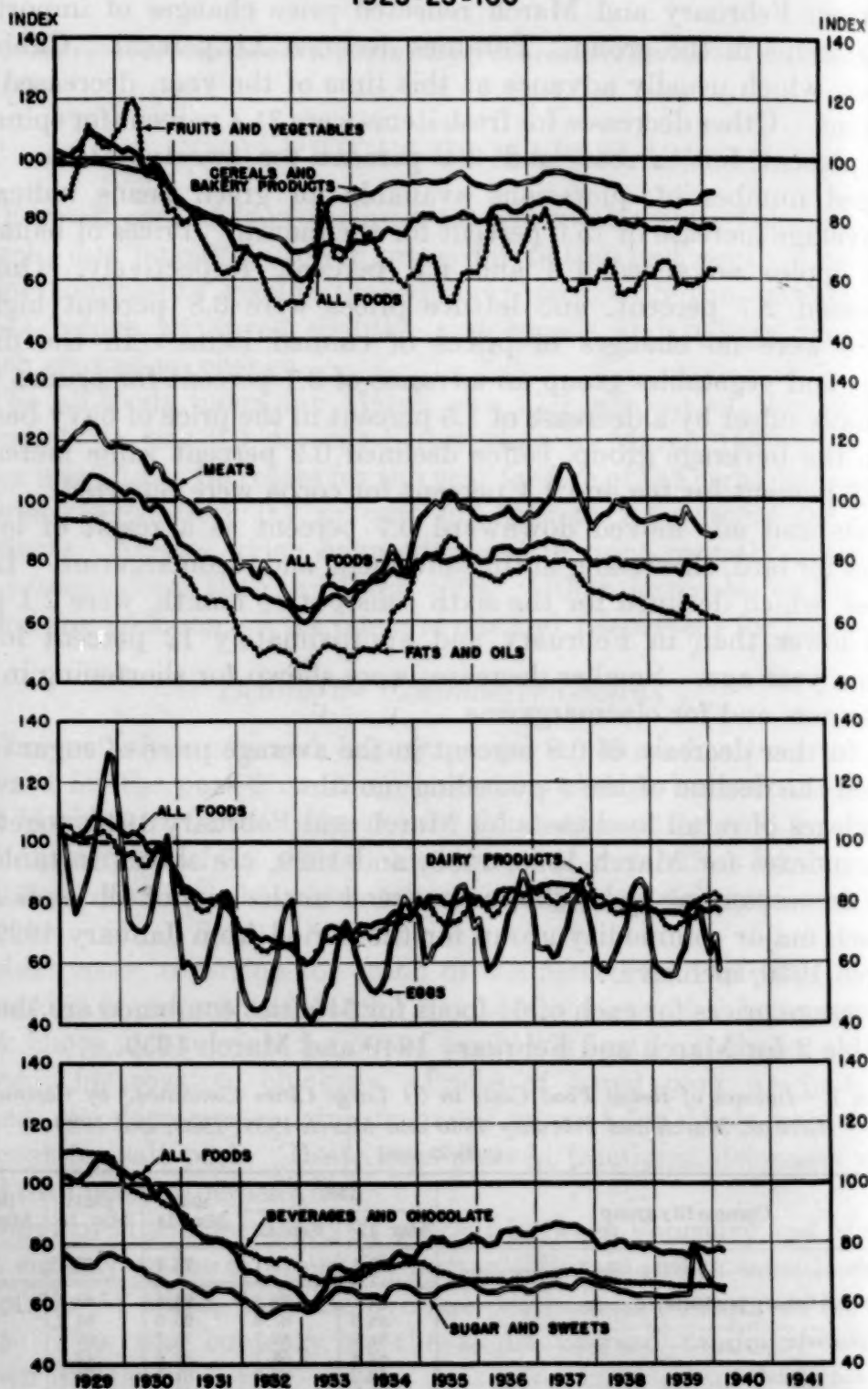
Commodity group	1940		1939	1933	1929
	Mar. 12 ²	Feb. 13	Mar. 14	Mar. 15	Mar. 15
All foods.....	77.1	78.1	76.4	59.8	101.4
Cereals and bakery products.....	88.7	88.7	85.4	69.3	98.2
Meats.....	88.3	87.8	93.6	64.2	118.6
Dairy products.....	81.3	82.7	75.7	59.8	105.2
Eggs.....	57.4	68.7	57.0	42.7	87.4
Fruits and vegetables.....	62.7	62.9	61.0	52.1	86.9
Fresh.....	61.3	61.5	60.0	51.4	84.7
Canned.....	75.0	75.0	74.1	65.3	97.1
Dried.....	63.7	63.6	56.6	47.3	101.3
Beverages.....	65.1	65.3	66.0	68.5	110.9
Fats and oils.....	60.3	60.7	63.6	45.0	93.8
Sugar.....	64.1	64.6	61.9	57.4	73.5

¹ Aggregate costs of 84 foods in each city prior to September 1939, and of 53 foods since that date, weighted to represent total purchases, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights.

² Preliminary.

RETAIL COST OF FOOD

1923-25=100



U. S. BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

TABLE 2.—Average Retail Prices of 61 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined,¹ March and February 1940 and March 1939

Article	1940		1939
	Mar. 12 ²	Feb. 13	Mar. 14
Cereals and bakery products:			
Cereals:	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>
Flour, wheat.....10 pounds.....	45.2	45.1	36.4
Macaroni.....pound.....	14.3	14.4	14.3
Wheat cereal ³28-oz. pkg.....	23.7	23.7	24.1
Corn flakes.....8-oz. pkg.....	7.0	7.0	7.2
Corn meal.....pound.....	4.6	4.5	4.5
Rice ⁴do.....	7.9	7.9	7.5
Rollod oats ⁵do.....	7.1	7.1	7.1
Bakery products:			
Bread, white.....do.....	8.2	8.2	8.0
Bread, whole-wheat.....do.....	9.4	9.4	9.2
Bread, rye.....do.....	9.5	9.5	9.3
Soda crackers.....do.....	15.4	15.5	15.2
Meats:			
Beef:			
Round steak.....do.....	33.8	33.9	35.8
Rib roast.....do.....	28.0	28.1	30.0
Chuck roast.....do.....	22.1	22.1	23.7
Veal:			
Cutlets.....do.....	41.5	42.4	43.2
Pork:			
Chops.....do.....	24.5	23.1	30.2
Bacon, sliced.....do.....	27.1	27.7	34.1
Ham, sliced.....do.....	42.1	42.8	46.6
Ham, whole.....do.....	23.9	24.2	28.2
Salt pork.....do.....	14.1	14.6	19.1
Lamb:			
Leg.....do.....	27.0	25.6	27.5
Rib chops.....do.....	34.4	32.6	35.0
Poultry:			
Roasting chickens.....do.....	28.5	27.7	30.9
Fish:			
Salmon, pink.....16-oz. can.....	15.3	15.2	12.5
Salmon, red ⁶do.....	25.4	25.3	22.8
Dairy products:			
Butter.....pound.....	35.8	37.9	31.5
Cheese.....do.....	25.9	25.9	24.7
Milk, fresh (delivered).....quart.....	13.0	13.0	12.4
Milk, fresh (store).....do.....	11.9	11.9	11.4
Milk, fresh (delivered and store) ⁷do.....	12.7	12.7	12.1
Milk, evaporated.....14½-oz. can.....	7.1	7.1	6.8
Eggs.....dozen.....	29.1	34.9	29.0
Fruits and vegetables:			
Fresh:			
Apples.....pound.....	4.9	4.6	5.4
Bananas.....do.....	6.4	6.3	6.2
Oranges.....dozen.....	25.7	25.7	23.4
Beans, green.....pound.....	23.0	20.0	16.7
Cabbage.....do.....	4.0	4.4	3.8
Carrots.....bunch.....	5.2	5.5	5.3
Lettuce.....head.....	8.2	7.9	8.6
Onions.....pound.....	3.8	3.7	4.1
Potatoes.....15 pounds.....	38.0	39.0	34.3
Spinach.....pound.....	7.0	10.2	6.5
Sweet potatoes.....do.....	4.0	4.1	4.2
Canned:			
Peaches.....No. 2½ can.....	17.0	17.0	16.7
Pineapple.....do.....	21.2	21.2	21.3
Beans, green ⁸No. 2 can.....	10.0	10.0	10.4
Corn ⁹do.....	10.6	10.6	11.4
Peas.....do.....	13.9	13.9	13.5
Tomatoes.....do.....	8.5	8.5	8.5
Dried:			
Prunes.....pound.....	9.9	9.6	9.1
Navy beans.....do.....	6.6	6.7	5.8

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 2.—Average Retail Prices of 61 Foods in 51 Large Cities Combined,¹ March and February 1940 and March 1939—Continued

Article	1940		1939 Mar. 14
	Mar. 12 ²	Feb. 13	
Beverages:	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>	<i>Cents</i>
Coffee.....pound.....	21.8	22.0	22.8
Tea..... $\frac{1}{4}$ pound.....	17.7	17.6	17.6
Cocoa ³8-oz. can.....	9.1	9.0	8.5
Fats and oils:			
Lard.....pound.....	9.5	9.7	11.0
Shortening, other than lard:			
In cartons.....do.....	12.0	12.0	12.5
In other containers.....do.....	19.4	19.6	20.1
Salad dressing ⁴pint.....	21.4	21.4	16.4
Oleomargarine.....pound.....	15.6	15.7	18.0
Peanut butter.....do.....	17.9	17.9	18.0
Sugar and sweets:			
Sugar.....10 pounds.....	52.9	53.3	51.1
Corn sirup ⁵24-oz. can.....	13.4	13.5	13.8
Molasses ⁶18-oz. can.....	13.5	13.5	13.5

¹ Since September 1939 supermarket prices have been substituted for those of certain service stores.² Preliminary.³ Not included in index.⁴ Revised.⁵ Since April 1939 prices of canned corn have been based upon quotations of cream style only and are not strictly comparable with prices for earlier months, which included both cream style and whole-kernel corn.⁶ Effective January 1940 salad dressing replaced mayonnaise in the food-cost index. Earlier prices are not available.

Details by Regions and Cities

Lower food costs in March as compared with February were reported for 50 of the 51 cities. The greatest decreases were 3.8 percent in Springfield (Ill.), 3.7 percent in St. Paul, 3.5 percent in Little Rock, and 3.4 percent in Dallas. The principal factors contributing to these decreases were lower prices for meats, eggs, and fresh fruits and vegetables in Springfield; dairy products in St. Paul; eggs in Little Rock; and fresh fruits and vegetables in Dallas.

Los Angeles was the only city reporting higher food costs. The increase of 0.4 percent was due in large measure to a rise of 4.7 percent in the cost of fresh fruits and vegetables. The increase for this group was greater than for any of the other cities except Baltimore and Washington, where advances of 6.8 and 8.7 percent, respectively, were recorded.

Indexes of food costs by cities are presented in table 3 for March and February 1940 and March 1939.

TABLE 3.—Indexes of the Average Retail Cost of All Foods, by Regions and Cities,¹ March and February 1940 and March 1939

[1923-25=100]

Region and city	1940		1939 Mar. 14	Region and city	1940		1939 Mar. 14
	Mar. 12 ²	Feb. 13			Mar. 12 ²	Feb. 13	
United States.....	77.1	78.1	76.4	West North Central— Continued.			
New England:				St. Louis.....	81.7	83.8	82.0
Boston.....	73.7	74.8	73.1	St. Paul.....	77.4	80.4	79.0
Bridgeport.....	80.8	81.1	78.7	South Atlantic:			
Fall River.....	78.9	79.1	77.8	Atlanta.....	70.5	72.2	70.5
Manchester.....	79.8	81.0	78.1	Baltimore.....	81.1	81.7	81.6
New Haven.....	79.2	79.7	77.8	Charleston, S. C.....	77.1	79.4	75.8
Portland, Maine.....	76.6	77.3	74.8	Jacksonville.....	74.7	76.9	73.7
Providence.....	75.5	76.1	73.3	Norfolk.....	73.7	76.0	73.5
Middle Atlantic:				Richmond.....	68.8	70.9	69.4
Buffalo.....	77.6	78.4	76.8	Savannah.....	77.0	78.8	74.5
Newark.....	81.6	82.1	79.6	Washington, D. C.....	78.2	78.5	78.0
New York.....	81.3	82.1	78.9	East South Central:			
Philadelphia.....	77.1	77.3	77.9	Birmingham.....	66.1	67.6	65.7
Pittsburgh.....	74.0	75.2	72.7	Louisville.....	81.4	81.9	80.6
Rochester.....	78.5	78.6	76.8	Memphis.....	72.6	74.7	71.7
Scranton.....	75.0	75.4	73.1	Mobile.....	71.7	72.5	73.4
East North Central:				West South Central:			
Chicago.....	78.1	79.4	76.3	Dallas.....	68.7	71.1	68.5
Cincinnati.....	76.5	77.5	76.0	Houston.....	76.3	78.5	74.7
Cleveland.....	78.4	79.2	78.9	Little Rock.....	71.3	73.9	71.3
Columbus, Ohio.....	75.8	76.9	77.2	New Orleans.....	82.8	84.4	82.2
Detroit.....	74.6	75.2	75.2	Mountain:			
Indianapolis.....	76.7	78.3	76.8	Butte.....	74.1	76.3	74.5
Milwaukee.....	78.4	79.0	80.2	Denver.....	79.0	80.9	81.2
Peoria.....	77.1	79.0	78.0	Salt Lake City.....	75.9	76.2	74.7
Springfield, Ill.....	73.2	76.1	75.8	Pacific:			
West North Central:				Los Angeles.....	71.2	70.9	71.4
Kansas City.....	75.7	77.3	78.5	Portland, Oreg.....	78.1	78.9	78.4
Minneapolis.....	84.5	85.7	83.2	San Francisco.....	80.1	80.6	79.5
Omaha.....	75.1	76.7	74.4	Seattle.....	79.6	80.1	78.1

¹ Aggregate costs of 84 foods in each city prior to September 1939, and of 53 foods since that date, weighted to represent total purchases, have been combined for the United States with the use of population weights.

² Preliminary.

³ Revised.

ELECTRICITY AND GAS

Price Changes Between December 1939 and March 1940

RESIDENTIAL rates are secured quarterly from 51 cities for electricity and from 50 cities for gas. These cities are those included in the composite indexes for all foods. The rates are used in the computation of series of prices both for electricity and for gas. The blocks of consumption which have been selected as the bases of these prices are representative of average conditions throughout the country.

ELECTRICITY

Prices of electricity are based upon the monthly use of 25 kilowatt-hours for lighting and small energy-consuming appliances; 100 kilowatt-hours for greater use of lighting and small appliances, and an electric refrigerator; and 250 kilowatt-hours for a still greater use of lighting,

a larger number of small appliances, and both an electric refrigerator and an electric range.

Reductions in residential electricity rates between December 1939 and March 1940 were reported for 4 of the 51 cities, and a slight advance, due to adjustments based upon higher costs for fuel, was effective in the Boroughs of Bronx, Brooklyn, Manhattan, and Queens in New York City. Resultant price changes for customers using 25, 100, and 250 kilowatt-hours per month are shown in table 4. This table also shows changes in Columbus, Ohio, resulting from lower rates effective November 15, 1939. A copy of these rates was not received in time for publication in the Bureau's report for December.

TABLE 4.—Percentage Change in Retail Prices of Specified Monthly Consumption of Electricity Between December 15, 1939, and March 15, 1940, by Cities

City	Percentage of change in price of—			City	Percentage of change in price of—		
	25 kwh	100 kwh	250 kwh		25 kwh	100 kwh	250 kwh
Fall River.....	-5.1	-1.6	-0.9	Washington.....	0	-3.7	-1.4
Newark.....	-6.1	-.9	-.5	Portland, Oreg.:.....			
New York: Co. 1.....	0	+ .4	+ .6	Co. 1.....	-29.6	-11.0	-12.7
Columbus: Co. 1 ¹	-9.6	-6.7	-2.9	Co. 2.....	-29.6	-11.0	-12.7

¹ Record of change in rates effective Nov. 15, 1939, was not received in time for publication in the December 1939 report.

Reductions in rates between December and March provided the greatest percentage decrease for the use of relatively small amounts of electricity. In Fall River the reduction amounted to about 7 cents in monthly bills for all customers. In Newark all customers using more than the 11 kilowatt-hours covered by the minimum charge were benefited. The greatest decrease, 11 cents, was applicable for the use of from 22 to 33 kilowatt-hours. This amount was gradually decreased to 4 cents in bills for 40 or more kilowatt-hours. Reductions in rates in Washington, D. C., affected all customers using more than 40 kilowatt-hours per month. The greatest decrease was about 13 cents for the use of 46 kilowatt-hours, followed by gradual reductions to 8 cents in monthly bills for 130 or more kilowatt-hours. Decreases for Portland, Oreg., were greater than those reported for the other cities. The advantage to customers using up to 225¹/₂ kilowatt-hours per month varied somewhat because of the division of these kilowatt-hours into comparatively small blocks at different rates per kilowatt-hour. There was a sharp drop in the rates for electricity

used in excess of 225 kilowatt-hours, thereby providing much greater reductions for the use of current in excess of that usually required by residential customers.

In Columbus, Ohio, a single rate schedule for all residential customers replaced the two schedules in effect prior to November 15, 1939, one of which was applicable only for customers using major appliances.

GAS

The prices of gas as computed by the Bureau are based upon 10.6 therms for the use of a range; 19.6 therms for range and manual-type water heater; 30.6 therms for range and automatic storage or instantaneous water heater; and 40.6 therms for range, automatic water heater, and gas refrigerator.

Rate decreases between December 1939 and March 1940 were reported for two cities, Philadelphia and Memphis, and an increase occurred in Rochester. Philadelphia and Rochester are served with manufactured gas, and Memphis with natural gas. Price changes in these cities to residential customers for each of the four services are shown in table 5.

TABLE 5.—Percentage Change in Retail Prices of Specified Monthly Consumptions of Gas Between Dec. 15, 1939, and Mar. 15, 1940, by Cities

City	Kind of gas ¹	Heating value per cubic foot in British thermal units	Percentage of change in price of—			
			10.6 therms	19.6 therms	30.6 therms	40.6 therms
Philadelphia.....	M	530	-1.7	-1.5	-5.0	-6.7
Rochester.....	M	537	+14.7	+9.3	+7.2	+6.2
Memphis.....	N	980	-7.9	-8.9	-9.2	-9.0

¹ N indicates natural gas and M, manufactured gas.

Rate reductions in Philadelphia were relatively unimportant for customers using up to 3,500 cubic feet of gas (18.6 therms) per month and provided gradually increasing benefits as the use of gas exceeded that amount. In Memphis lower rates were applicable for all customers using more gas than that covered by the minimum bill. The reductions varied only slightly according to amounts used, and in no instances were bills lowered as much as 12 percent. Higher rates in Rochester showed relatively greater increases for customers using a small amount of gas.

RETAIL PRICES IN GOVERNMENT STORES OF SOVIET UNION, JANUARY 1, 1939 AND 1940

THE retail prices of a number of consumers' goods in the State stores in Moscow on January 1, 1939 and 1940, are shown in the table following. For purposes of further comparison, such open market prices in Moscow on January 1, 1940, as were available, have been added to the table.¹

From the somewhat fragmentary data it will be observed that the food situation in Moscow—normally the best-supplied urban center in the Soviet Union—has shown further deterioration since January 1, 1939. Prices of all classes of commodities available for sale have increased by 10.5 percent; on the other hand, the shortage of goods has become more pronounced than at any time since the introduction of the card rationing system in 1930, which was later discontinued.

There were 129 items available in the State stores in Moscow in 1936, but this figure had fallen to 88 by January 1, 1939, to 83 by July 1, 1939, and to only 44 by January 1, 1940. Furthermore, according to the Embassy report, only a few of these 44 items are readily available in Government stores at present, and such essential commodities as milk, butter, eggs, sugar, potatoes, and various others listed in the table as "available" are on sale only very irregularly, and apparently in insufficient quantities. This results in long queues of customers who wait for hours in front of the stores. Under such circumstances the State-store prices quoted often become only nominal or at best of secondary importance, since the existing situation considerably restricts the actual consumption of foodstuffs by the population.

Furthermore, the acute shortage of essential commodities in the State stores has caused the open-bazaar market prices to soar to abnormally high levels. As a result the average difference or "spread" between State-store and open-market prices on available goods, as listed in the table, now amounts to over 78 percent. In addition, the available supply and variety of foodstuffs offered in the open market was unusually low during the winter, being reported as far more noticeable than can be accounted for by the normal, seasonal scarcity. This reflects both the unwillingness of the peasant to exchange his surplus food products for cash which he cannot use for the purchase of much-needed consumption goods, since he cannot find these on the market, and also the depleted stocks of foodstuffs in the villages themselves. Such commodities as canned goods, fish, caviar, sausages, various fruits and vegetables, nuts, and cereals have practically disappeared from the market, and since January 1, 1940, tea and coffee are no longer available.

¹ Data supplied by the American Embassy, Moscow.

Another current feature, which is described as unprecedented in Soviet trade practice, is the marked scarcity of spirits and other alcoholic beverages in the stores. This is the more significant in the light of the recent sharp price increases on these products.

It was found impossible to include prices on wearing apparel in the table. The reason for this, the Embassy report states, is that, notwithstanding an exhaustive search, no store was found carrying goods of this character, except neckties, hats, caps, fur hats, and galoshes.

Another outstanding shortage which has become increasingly apparent is that of sweets of all kinds. Even the most expensive types of chocolate and chocolate candy are very difficult to obtain. The prices on sweets of all types have increased. It also seems that stocks of cocoa and coffee, products imported into the Soviet Union, are running low.

Restaurants and public catering places are overcrowded and people stand in line in the streets, awaiting their turn to enter. The variety and quality of the food served have also deteriorated, while prices have advanced.

In the table, prices are quoted in paper rubles, the actual value of which is rather obscure. The value of the former Imperial ruble amounted to 51.5 cents (United States currency) on the gold basis. The Soviet paper ruble (100 kopeks) is quoted by the Soviet State Bank at about 19 cents (\$1=5 rubles 30 kopeks). This however, is considered to be merely a bookkeeping value.

The exportation and importation of paper rubles are prohibited by the Soviet Government. Therefore the Soviet paper ruble is not quoted on any regular money exchange abroad.

Retail Prices of Principal Commodities in State Stores of Soviet Union, January 1, 1939 and 1940, and in Open Market, January 1, 1940

Commodity	Unit ¹	State-store prices (in rubles), January 1—		Open market prices (in rubles), January 1, 1940	Commodity	Unit ¹	State-store prices (in rubles), January 1—		Open market prices (in rubles), January 1, 1940
		1939	1940				1939	1940	
Bread, black, rye...	Kg.....	0.85	0.85	-----	Sugar, lump.....	Kg.....	4.10	4.10	-----
Bread, white, wheat...	Kg.....	1.70	1.70	-----	Wheat meal.....	Kg.....	4.50	(²)	-----
French loaf.....	200 gm.	1.20	1.20	-----	Barley grits, fine...	Kg.....	1.30	(²)	-----
Chocolate (Mignon).....	100 gm.	7.50	(²)	-----	Buckwheat grits.....	Kg.....	4.30	(²)	-----
Candy (bonbons), first quality.....	Kg.....	16.80	22.00	-----	Shelled millet grits...	Kg.....	3.00	(²)	-----
Chocolate candy, best.....	Kg.....	44.40	51.60	-----	Macaroni.....	Kg.....	6.10	(²)	-----
Cocoa ¹	250 gm.	15.55	15.55	-----	Flour, 72 percent.....	Kg.....	2.90	(²)	-----
Coffee, roasted ²	Kg.....	49.40	(²)	-----	Flour, 30 percent.....	Kg.....	4.60	4.60	-----
Tea.....	400 gm.	40.00	(²)	-----	Salt.....	Kg.....	.05	.05	-----
Pepper, black, ground.....	100 gm.	8.00	8.00	-----	Laundry soap.....	Kg.....	3.10	3.10	-----
Sunflower oil.....	Kg.....	15.65	15.65	-----	Glycerine soap.....	Cake.....	1.55	1.60	-----
Sugar, granulated.....	Kg.....	3.80	3.80	-----	Matches.....	Box.....	.03	.05	-----
					Kerosene.....	Liter.....	.47	.65	-----
					Beefsteak (fillet of beef).....	Kg.....	12.50	14.00	20.00
					Beef roast.....	Kg.....	9.60	10.50	17.00
					Beef, for soup.....	Kg.....	8.00	9.00	14.00

See footnotes at end of table.

*Retail Prices of Principal Commodities in State Stores of Soviet Union, January 1, 1939
and 1940, and in Open Market, January 1, 1940—Continued*

Commodity	Unit	State-store prices (in rubles), January 1—		Open market prices (in rubles), January 1, 1940	Commodity	Unit	State-store prices (in rubles), January 1—		Open market prices (in rubles), January 1, 1940
		1939	1940				1939	1940	
Veal.....	Kg.....	(³)	(³)	20.00	Canned goods—Con.				
Pork chops.....	Kg.....	10.60	(³)		Meat.....	400 (330) gm.	4.60	(³)	
Pork roast.....	Kg.....	10.00	(³)		Potatoes.....	Kg.....	.50	0.50	6.00
Ham, fresh.....	Kg.....	11.00	(³)		Cabbage.....	Kg.....	6.00	(³)	10.00
Mutton chops.....	Kg.....	9.60	(³)		Sauerkraut.....	Kg.....	.80	(³)	
Mutton.....	Kg.....	8.00	(³)	17.00	Cucumbers, pickled.....	Kg.....	2.00	(³)	
Chicken:					Onions.....	Kg.....	1.20	1.50	2.50
First quality.....	Kg.....	(³)	(³)	18.00	Green onions.....	Kg.....	(³)	2.00	
Second quality.....	Kg.....	10.00	(³)		Beets.....	Kg.....	(³)	.50	1.50
Geese, second quality.....	Kg.....	9.00	(³)		Carrots.....	Kg.....	.40	.50	2.00
Duck.....	Kg.....	11.00	(³)		Mushrooms, pickled.....	Kg.....	.50	(³)	
Perch, frozen.....	Kg.....	5.40	(³)		Apples.....	Kg.....	(³)	6.40	
Sturgeon, chilled.....	Kg.....	15.00	(³)		Raisins.....	Kg.....	9.00	(³)	
Pike perch, frozen.....	Kg.....	5.40	(³)		Dried mixed fruits.....	Kg.....	8.00	(³)	
Sturgeon, cured ("balyk") 1 qual.	Kg.....	(³)	30.00		Milk, fresh.....	Liter.....	2.10	2.10	5.00
Herring, salted.....	Kg.....	6.00	(³)		Cream, fresh.....	Liter.....	6.80	(³)	
Herring, smoked.....	Kg.....	8.00	(³)		Cream, sour.....	Kg.....	6.50	6.80	16.00
Ham, smoked.....	Kg.....	18.00	(³)		Cheese, Swiss.....	Kg.....	24.80	24.80	
Bacon.....	Kg.....	16.00	(³)		Cheese, American.....	Kg.....	22.20	(³)	
Sausage, ordinary.....	Kg.....	10.00	10.00		Cheese, Holland.....	Kg.....	14.80	(³)	
Sausage, Vienna.....	Kg.....	12.50	(³)		Butter:				
Sausage, Hamburger.....	Kg.....	16.00	(³)		First quality.....	Kg.....	20.00	(³)	
Sausage, Cracow.....	Kg.....	14.00	(³)		Second quality.....	Kg.....	17.50	17.50	
Salami.....	Kg.....	30.00	30.00		Eggs.....	10.....	7.50	8.50	12.00
Salt pork, fat.....	Kg.....	22.00	(³)		Pipe tobacco ("Sphinx") 1 package.....	100 gm.....	5.00	5.00	
Lard, second quality.....	Kg.....	13.00	(³)		Cigarettes:				
Canned goods:					("Deli"), 1 box.....	25.....	2.70	2.70	
Tongue.....	400 gm.....	7.10	(³)		("Pushki"), 1 box.....	25.....	2.25	2.25	
Green peas.....	500 gm.....	2.80	(³)		("D'or" "Alle-gro").....	25.....	4.50	4.50	
Corn.....	500 gm.....	1.00	(³)		Cigars, Soviet, 1 box.....	10.....	15.00	15.00	
Tomatoes.....	Kg.....	6.90	(³)		Makherka tobacco, 1 package.....	50 gm.....	.40	.50	
Sardines in oil.....	250 gm.....	4.75	(³)						
Fish in tomato sauce (perch).....	500 gm.....	6.20	(³)						
Anchovy ("kif").....	400 gm.....	1.75	(³)						

¹ Kilogram (1,000 grams) = 2.2046 pounds; liter = 1.0567 quart (liquid).

² Foreign origin.

³ Not available.

Wholesale Prices

WHOLESALE PRICES IN MARCH 1940 ¹

CONTINUING the downward movement which began early in the year, the Bureau of Labor Statistics index of wholesale commodity prices dropped 0.4 percent in March to the lowest point reached in the past 7 months.

Weakening prices for farm products, foods, and textile products largely accounted for the decrease which brought the all-commodity index to 78.4 percent of the 1926 level.

In addition to decreases of over 1 percent for farm products, foods, and textile products, minor declines were recorded for hides and leather products, fuel and lighting materials, chemicals and allied products, and miscellaneous commodities. The metals and metal products and building materials groups advanced fractionally. House-furnishing goods remained unchanged at the February level. Each of the 10 major commodity groups, except foods and fuel and lighting materials, was above its year-ago level. The increases range from less than 2 percent for metals and metal products and chemicals and allied products to about 11 percent for hides and leather products and textile products.

Primarily as a result of weakening prices for agricultural commodities, the raw materials group index fell 1 percent to the lowest point reached since August. Average prices of semimanufactured and manufactured commodities also declined during the month. Of these three economic group classifications, semimanufactured commodities show the greatest gain from March 1939, almost 7 percent. Raw materials rose nearly 3 percent from a year ago and finished products increased a little more than 1 percent. The indexes for the large groups of "All commodities other than farm products" and "All commodities other than farm products and foods" each decreased 0.4 percent.

Average prices of farm products in wholesale markets declined 1.2 percent to the lowest point reached this year. Marked decreases in prices for barley, hogs, live poultry, cotton, eggs, lemons, oranges,

¹ More detailed information on wholesale prices is given in the Wholesale Price pamphlet and will be furnished upon request.

hops, fresh milk (Chicago), peanuts, dried beans, onions, and wool were mainly responsible for the decline. The livestock and poultry and grains subgroups rose 2.3 percent and 0.8 percent, respectively. Quotations were higher for corn, oats, rye, wheat, calves, cows, steers, sheep, apples, and potatoes. Grains were almost 35 percent higher than they were a year ago while livestock and poultry showed a decline of over 14 percent from March 1939.

Primarily because of decreases of 1.8 percent for dairy products and 5 percent for "other foods," the foods group index fell 1.3 percent to the lowest level reached since August. Lower prices were reported for butter, cheese, powdered milk, rye flour, oatmeal, crackers, canned and dried fruits, canned vegetables, cured and fresh pork, coffee, lard, oleo oil, raw sugar, and tallow. Meat prices advanced 1.2 percent during March. Higher prices were reported for fresh beef, lamb, mutton, mess pork, dressed poultry, cocoa beans, glucose, and pepper. Compared with a year ago, prices of dairy products advanced over 21 percent and cereal products rose 14 percent. Meats, on the other hand, declined 16 percent, and fruits and vegetables were 7 percent lower.

Sharp declines in prices for hides, goatskins, and leather caused the hides and leather products group index to drop 0.6 percent. Prices for shoes, calf and kip skins, and chrome calf leather were a little higher than they were a month ago.

Continued weakness in prices for cotton goods, hosiery, and underwear, silk, woolen, and worsted goods, and other textile products such as burlap, hemp, and cordage caused the textile products group index to fall nearly 2 percent to 74.0. The index declined 5 percent since January but was more than 11 percent above a year ago. Notwithstanding the recent dip in textile product prices, the subgroup indexes were substantially higher than they were a year ago. Silk advanced nearly 30 percent; other textile products, 16½ percent; and cotton goods and woolen and worsted goods, about 12 percent.

The fuel and lighting materials group index fell 0.3 percent to the lowest point reached in nearly 6 years. Lower prices for bituminous coal, coke, fuel oil, and gasoline accounted for the decline.

In the metals and metal products group higher prices for bar iron, castings, barbed wire, copper, lead, quicksilver, tin, zinc, copper and brass manufactures, plumbing fixtures, and farm machinery caused the group index to rise 0.2 percent to 95.5 percent of the 1926 average. Prices were lower for reinforcing bars, scrap steel, wood screws, and aluminum.

A minor advance was recorded in the building materials group index because of higher prices for pine and spruce lumber, prepared roofing, and paint materials such as ethyl acetate, red lead, litharge, linseed

oil, putty, rosin, and shellac. Quotations were lower for Douglas fir lumber, red cedar shingles, copal gum, China wood oil, turpentine, gravel, sand, lime, plaster, cement, and concrete blocks.

The index for the revised chemicals and drugs group, now chemicals and allied products, declined 0.6 percent, largely because of sharp decreases in prices for fats and oils. The chemicals, fertilizer materials, and mixed fertilizer subgroups also declined fractionally. Drugs and pharmaceuticals registered a slight increase because of higher prices for tartaric acid.

Lower prices for bedding did not affect the index for the house-furnishing goods group, which remained at 88.0 percent of the 1926 average.

In the miscellaneous commodities group, cattle feed prices increased 1.6 percent. Crude rubber declined 1 percent and paper and pulp fell 0.6 percent. Prices were lower also for cylinder oil, soap, and wax.

Index numbers of the groups and subgroups of commodities for February and March 1940 and March 1939 and the percentage changes from a year ago and a month ago are shown in table 1.

TABLE 1.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, February and March 1940 and March 1939, and Percent of Change from February 1940 and March 1939 to March 1940

[1926=100]

Group and subgroup	March 1940	February 1940	Change from a month ago	March 1939	Change from a year ago
			Percent		Percent
All commodities.....	78.4	78.7	-0.4	76.7	+2.2
Farm products.....	67.9	68.7	-1.2	65.8	+3.2
Grains.....	73.4	72.8	+ .8	54.5	+34.7
Livestock and poultry.....	67.1	65.6	+2.3	78.2	-14.2
Other farm products.....	66.3	68.9	-3.8	61.0	+8.7
Foods.....	70.2	71.1	-1.3	70.2	0
Dairy products.....	78.6	80.0	-1.8	64.8	+21.3
Cereal products.....	82.4	82.4	0	72.3	+14.0
Fruits and vegetables.....	58.7	58.7	0	63.2	-7.1
Meats.....	69.2	68.4	+1.2	82.5	-16.1
Other foods.....	63.0	66.3	-5.0	61.9	+1.8
Hides and leather products.....	101.8	102.4	-.6	91.8	+10.9
Shoes.....	108.4	108.2	+ .2	101.2	+7.1
Hides and skins.....	94.3	97.0	-2.8	73.8	+27.8
Leather.....	93.5	94.2	-.7	82.7	+13.1
Other leather products.....	100.0	100.0	0	95.6	+4.6
Textile products.....	74.0	75.4	-1.9	66.6	+11.1
Clothing.....	85.1	84.9	+ .2	81.5	+4.4
Cotton goods.....	71.8	73.6	-2.4	63.7	+12.7
Hosiery and underwear.....	62.2	64.5	-3.6	59.9	+3.8
Rayon ¹	29.5	29.5	0	28.5	+3.5
Silk ²	49.9	51.6	-3.3	38.4	+29.9
Woolen and worsted goods.....	84.5	87.2	-3.1	75.1	+12.5
Other textile products.....	74.9	76.8	-2.5	64.3	+16.5

See footnotes at end of table.

TABLE 1.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices, February and March 1940 and March 1939, and Percent of Change from February 1940 and March 1939 to March 1940—Continued

Group and subgroup	March 1940	February 1940	Change from a month ago	March 1939	Change from a year ago
			Percent		Percent
Fuel and lighting materials	72.2	72.4	-0.3	73.1	-1.1
Anthracite.....	79.2	79.2	0	79.4	-0.3
Bituminous coal.....	97.3	98.2	-0.9	97.9	-0.6
Coke.....	109.6	109.7	-0.1	104.2	+5.2
Electricity.....	(1)	(1)		80.3	
Gas.....	(1)	81.6		82.2	
Petroleum products.....	50.4	50.9	-1.0	50.9	-1.0
Metals and metal products	95.5	95.3	+0.2	94.3	+1.3
Agricultural implements.....	93.4	93.4	0	93.2	+0.2
Farm machinery.....	94.7	94.6	+0.1	94.5	+0.2
Iron and steel.....	96.4	96.3	+0.1	96.1	+0.3
Motor vehicles ²	94.8	94.7	+0.1	93.4	+1.5
Nonferrous metals.....	79.7	79.2	+0.6	76.6	+4.0
Plumbing and heating.....	81.0	79.1	+2.4	79.3	+2.1
Building materials	93.3	93.2	+0.1	89.8	+3.9
Brick and tile.....	90.4	91.2	-0.9	92.5	-2.3
Cement.....	91.2	91.4	-0.2	91.5	-0.3
Lumber.....	97.8	97.6	+0.2	92.1	+6.2
Paint and paint materials.....	87.2	86.8	+0.5	81.5	+7.0
Plumbing and heating.....	81.0	79.1	+2.4	79.3	+2.1
Structural steel.....	107.3	107.3	0	107.3	0
Other building materials.....	92.7	92.9	-0.2	89.8	+3.2
Chemicals and allied products	77.0	77.5	-0.6	76.0	+1.3
Chemicals.....	85.1	85.3	-0.2	84.8	+0.4
Drugs and pharmaceuticals.....	81.4	81.3	+0.1	77.7	+4.8
Fertilizer materials.....	70.6	71.0	-0.6	68.0	+3.8
Mixed fertilizers.....	73.9	74.2	-0.4	73.3	+0.8
Oils and fats.....	47.8	51.0	-6.3	47.3	+1.1
Housefurnishing goods	88.0	⁴ 88.0	0	85.2	+3.3
Furnishings.....	94.2	94.2	0	89.7	+5.0
Furniture.....	81.5	⁴ 81.5	0	80.5	+1.2
Miscellaneous	76.9	77.3	-0.5	74.1	+3.8
Automobile tires and tubes.....	55.6	55.6	0	60.5	-8.1
Cattle feed.....	95.2	93.7	+1.6	84.1	+13.2
Paper and pulp.....	89.0	89.5	-0.6	81.3	+9.5
Rubber, crude.....	38.3	38.7	-1.0	34.1	+12.3
Other miscellaneous.....	85.8	86.6	-0.9	81.3	+5.5
Raw materials	72.0	72.7	-1.0	70.1	+2.7
Semimanufactured articles	79.7	79.9	-0.3	74.6	+6.8
Manufactured products	81.1	81.4	-0.4	80.2	+1.1
All commodities other than farm products	80.5	80.8	-0.4	79.0	+1.9
All commodities other than farm products and foods	82.9	83.2	-0.4	80.4	+3.1

¹ Data not yet available.² Preliminary revision.³ New series.⁴ Revised.*Index Numbers by Commodity Groups, 1926 to March 1940*

Index numbers of wholesale prices by commodity groups for selected years from 1926 to 1939, inclusive, and by months from March 1939 to March 1940, inclusive, are shown in table 2.

Wholesale Prices

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TABLE 2.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Groups of Commodities

[1926=100]

Year and month	Farm products	Foods	Hides and leather products	Textile products	Fuel and lighting	Metals and metal products	Building materials	Chemicals and allied products	House-furnishing goods	Miscellaneous	All commodities
By years:											
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
1929	104.9	99.9	109.1	90.4	83.0	100.5	95.4	94.0	94.3	82.6	95.3
1932	48.2	61.0	72.9	54.9	70.3	80.2	71.4	73.9	75.1	64.4	64.8
1933	51.4	60.5	80.9	64.8	66.3	79.8	77.0	72.1	75.8	62.5	65.9
1936	80.9	82.1	95.4	71.5	76.2	87.0	86.7	78.7	81.7	70.5	80.8
1937	86.4	85.5	104.6	76.3	77.6	95.7	95.2	82.6	89.7	77.8	86.3
1938	68.5	73.6	92.8	66.7	76.5	95.7	90.3	77.0	86.8	73.3	78.6
1939	65.3	70.4	95.6	69.7	73.1	94.4	90.5	76.0	86.3	74.8	77.1
By months:											
1939:											
March	65.8	70.2	91.8	66.6	73.1	94.3	89.8	76.0	85.2	74.1	76.7
April	63.7	68.6	90.9	66.9	73.4	94.0	89.6	75.6	85.4	74.4	76.2
May	63.7	68.2	91.6	67.5	73.9	93.5	89.5	75.6	85.5	74.2	76.2
June	62.4	67.6	92.3	67.3	73.0	93.2	89.5	75.2	85.6	73.8	75.6
July	62.6	67.5	92.5	67.6	72.8	93.2	89.7	74.5	85.6	73.4	75.4
August	61.0	67.2	92.7	67.8	72.6	93.2	89.6	74.2	85.6	73.3	75.0
September	68.7	75.1	98.5	71.7	72.8	94.8	90.9	76.6	86.6	76.6	79.1
October	67.1	73.3	104.6	75.5	73.9	95.8	92.8	77.6	87.8	77.6	79.4
November	67.3	72.3	104.0	76.4	74.1	96.0	93.0	77.4	88.4	77.0	79.2
December	67.6	71.9	103.7	78.0	72.8	96.0	93.0	77.7	88.5	77.4	79.2
1940:											
January	69.1	71.7	103.6	77.9	72.7	95.8	93.4	77.7	87.9	77.7	79.4
February	68.7	71.1	102.4	75.4	72.4	95.3	93.2	77.5	88.0	77.3	78.7
March	67.9	70.2	101.8	74.0	72.2	95.5	93.3	77.0	88.0	76.9	78.4

¹ Revised.

The price trend for specified years and months since 1926 is shown in table 3 for the following groups of commodities: Raw materials, semi-manufactured articles, manufactured products, commodities other than farm products, and commodities other than farm products and foods. The list of commodities included under the classifications "Raw materials," "Semimanufactured articles," and "Manufactured products" was given in the December and Year 1939 issue of the Wholesale Price pamphlet.

TABLE 3.—Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Special Groups of Commodities

[1926=100]

Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods	Year and month	Raw materials	Semi-manufactured articles	Manufactured products	All commodities other than farm products	All commodities other than farm products and foods
By years:						By months—Con.					
1926	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	May	68.9	74.3	79.9	78.8	80.6
1929	97.5	93.9	94.5	93.3	91.6	June	67.7	74.1	79.6	78.4	80.2
1932	55.1	59.3	70.3	68.3	70.2	July	67.8	74.4	79.2	78.1	80.2
1933	56.5	65.4	70.5	69.0	71.2	August	66.5	74.5	79.1	77.9	80.1
1936	79.9	75.9	82.0	80.7	79.6	September	72.6	81.8	81.9	81.3	82.1
1937	84.8	85.3	87.2	86.2	85.3	October	72.3	83.1	82.3	82.0	83.8
1938	72.0	75.4	82.2	80.6	81.7	November	72.4	82.1	82.0	81.6	84.0
1939	70.2	77.0	80.4	79.5	81.3	December	73.3	82.0	81.7	81.6	83.9
By months:						1940:					
1939:						January	73.8	81.7	81.7	81.5	83.9
March	70.1	74.6	80.2	79.0	80.4	February	72.7	79.9	81.4	80.8	83.2
April	68.5	74.4	80.1	78.8	80.5	March	72.0	79.7	81.1	80.5	82.9

Weekly Fluctuations

Weekly fluctuations in the major commodity group classifications during February and March are shown by the index numbers in table 4.

TABLE 4.—Weekly Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices by Commodity Groups, February and March 1940

[1926=100]

Commodity group	Mar. 30, 1940	Mar. 23, 1940	Mar. 16, 1940	Mar. 9, 1940	Mar. 2, 1940	Feb. 24, 1940	Feb. 17, 1940	Feb. 10, 1940	Feb. 3, 1940
All commodities	77.9	77.9	78.2	78.3	78.4	78.6	78.3	78.5	78.8
Farm products	68.1	67.5	68.0	68.5	68.8	69.4	68.6	68.9	69.6
Foods	69.8	69.9	70.4	69.9	70.5	71.0	70.5	70.9	71.7
Hides and leather products	102.0	102.1	102.5	102.4	102.8	102.7	103.1	103.2	103.0
Textile products	72.5	72.7	73.0	73.3	73.6	74.2	74.4	75.3	75.3
Fuel and lighting materials	72.3	72.6	72.6	72.8	72.8	73.0	73.0	73.0	73.3
Metals and metal products	95.5	95.4	95.5	95.5	95.5	95.3	95.3	95.5	95.6
Building materials	93.1	93.3	93.2	93.3	93.3	93.0	93.2	93.1	93.1
Chemicals and drugs	77.2	77.3	77.4	77.5	77.8	77.7	77.5	77.3	77.5
Housefurnishing goods	89.7	89.7	89.8	89.8	89.7	89.7	89.8	89.8	89.7
Miscellaneous	76.6	76.5	76.9	76.8	76.9	77.2	77.2	77.1	77.1
Raw materials	71.8	71.5	71.9	72.2	72.4	72.9	72.4	72.7	73.2
Semimanufactured articles	79.5	79.4	79.6	79.7	79.8	79.6	79.6	80.1	80.3
Manufactured products	81.0	81.2	81.4	81.4	81.4	81.5	81.4	81.4	81.7
All commodities other than farm products	80.1	80.2	80.5	80.4	80.5	80.6	80.5	80.6	80.9
All commodities other than farm products and foods	82.8	82.9	83.0	83.1	83.2	83.3	83.3	83.5	83.6

INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES OF CHEMICALS AND ALLIED PRODUCTS

THE survey covering wholesale prices of chemicals and allied products has been completed. It is one of a series of studies being made for the improvement of wholesale price index numbers for all principal groups covered by the Bureau.

The revised group of "chemicals and allied products" includes the four subgroups of the former "chemicals and drugs" group: (1) chemicals, (2) drugs and pharmaceuticals, (3) fertilizer materials, and (4) mixed fertilizers. In addition it includes a fifth subgroup of oils and fats. It is planned to continue these five subgroups as part of the Bureau's regular statistics on wholesale prices.

Among the more important phases of the revision were more detailed descriptions of the items included in the index, enlargement of the commodity coverage, reallocation of weighting factors, elimination of unimportant or irrelevant items, changes in certain individual price series to more representative grades of products or types of sale, and transfer of some items to groups under which they more logically belong.

The revision of the chemicals and drugs group resulted in some changes in the subgroup of "other foods," such as the elimination of copra and the addition of baking powder. The price series on crude vegetable oils formerly carried in the foods group were replaced by series on refined edible grades. The oils now carried in both the food and chemicals and allied product groups were weighted according to the quantities used for edible and industrial purposes.

The revised index numbers have been computed by years from 1926 through 1939 and by months from January 1933 to March 1940. Whenever possible each individual price series was projected back to January 1926. In some instances this could be done only by substituting one price series for another. In other instances individual series were incorporated in the index at a later period. It was necessary to exclude some important items because satisfactory price data were not available.

The base period used (1926) and the general procedure in constructing the index numbers are those which have been employed by the Bureau since the general revision of its wholesale price indexes in 1931. The prices are for typical representative sales and are secured from trade journals, trade organizations, and manufacturers.

In the March 1940 issue of Wholesale Prices are given the revised index numbers for the group and component subgroups and complete specifications for the list of items now priced for the construction of the index. A detailed report giving the results of the survey is in preparation and will soon be available for distribution.

Recent Publications of Labor Interest

APRIL 1940

Agriculture

European Conference on Rural Life, 1939. Geneva, League of Nations, 1939.

A series of national monographs on rural conditions in different European countries, drawn up by the Governments of the respective countries, as well as a number of reports on specific subjects, were published by the League of Nations for the Conference on Rural Life. The latter reports included: Cooperative action in rural life; rural housing and planning; and sickness insurance and rural medical assistance.

An American exodus: A record of human erosion. By Dorothea Lange and Paul Schuster Taylor. New York, Reynal & Hitchcock, 1939. 158 pp.

A pictorial record of migratory workers and their environment before and after migration.

Sugar-beet labor conference held at Denver, Colo., June 8-9, 1939. Denver, Colo., U. S. Farm Security Administration, 1939. Various paging; mimeographed.

Among the studies in progress discussed at the meeting were the following: Transient labor (West Coast); determination of peak labor requirements; place of labor camps and work projects on the Pacific Coast; agricultural labor in small grain in the Middle West and Northern Great Plains; decreased income by reason of lost time and expense of travel, etc.; farm labor in Montana; agricultural labor on relief in Colorado; and housing and social status of beet laborers in Colorado.

Child Labor and Child Welfare

Child labor facts, 1939-1940. By Gertrude Folks Zimand. New York, National Child Labor Committee, 1939. 38 pp., chart, illus. (Publication No. 379.)

Discusses the extent of child labor, what work children are doing, and Federal and State child-labor legislation.

Child welfare in Germany before and after Naziism. By Walter Friedlander and Earl Dewey Myers. Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1940. 273 pp., bibliography. (Social service monograph.)

The topics covered include legislation and social services for protection of working children and adolescents, and labor services for unemployed youth.

Conciliation and Arbitration

Government mediation and arbitration in industrial disputes. By Arthur Harris-Berkeley, University of California, Bureau of Public Administration, 1939. 25 pp., bibliography; mimeographed. (1939 legislative problems, No. 10.)

L'évolution sociale et la pratique de l'arbitrage. By Jacques Brissaud and Paul-André Gueydan. Paris, E. de Boccard, 1939. 461 pp.

A study of the history of arbitration in France and experience under the legislation of 1936 and 1938 in this field.

Cooperation and Self-help

Manual on the church and cooperatives. Compiled by Benson Y. Landis. (In Information Service, Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, New York, March 23, 1940; 16 pp.)

Discusses the various types of cooperatives—consumers' cooperatives, credit unions, self-help organizations, and others—and describes examples of active assistance and participation by ministers and church groups. A bibliography is included.

Self-help organizations in the United States, 1938. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 13 pp. (Serial No. R. 1045, reprint from December 1939 Monthly Labor Review.)

Taxation of cooperatives. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 4 pp. (Serial No. R. 1062, reprint from January 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

A tour of Nova Scotia cooperatives: Report of conference tours conducted under auspices of Cooperative League of the U. S. A. and extension department of St. Francis Xavier University. New York, Cooperative League, [1940?]. 48 pp., illus.

S O K—25 Jahre produktivitätigkeit. Helsingki, Suomen Osuuskauppojen Keskuskunta, [1939?]. 128 pp., charts, illus.

Pictorial presentation of the work of the S. O. K., one of the two consumers' cooperative wholesales in Finland, issued in celebration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the organization's entrance into production. S. O. K.'s factories, which manufacture a considerable variety of goods, employed nearly 2,100 persons in 1938. Several of these plants were at Viipuri.

Cost and Standards of Living

Changes in cost of living in Pennsylvania. Harrisburg, Department of Labor and Industry, Bureau of Research and Information, [1940?]. 13 pp., mimeographed.

Data for six cities, for year ending June 15, 1939.

Income, family size, and economic level of the family. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 20 pp. (Serial No. R. 1064, reprint from January 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

Economic and Social Problems

Declaration of principles relating to the conduct of American industry, adopted in Congress of American Industry, December 1939. New York, National Association of Manufacturers, [1940?]. 21 pp.

The Congress, which is composed of employers and is sponsored by the National Association of Manufacturers, adopted a statement consisting of an argument for "the American system of free enterprise" and an outline of views and policies on such questions as unemployment, prices, wages, hours, and the functions of Government.

Economic and statistical research in private enterprise. By Clyde L. Rogers and Jarvis M. Thayer, Jr. (In Conference Board Economic Record, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., New York, March 5, 1940, pp. 61-68.)

A summary of a survey of over 500 companies. The types of research include internal or company statistics, industry statistics, general business conditions, and special studies. Many of the companies surveyed maintain research activities relating to employment, wage rates, and other topics affecting labor, and many also reported special studies in such fields as personnel practices and labor unions.

Making the annual report speak for industry. By James P. Selvage and Morris M. Lee. Compiled by National Association of Manufacturers. New York, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. 187 pp., diagrams, illus.

This analysis of about 2,000 annual reports of business and industrial concerns shows the trend towards acquainting employees, stockholders, and the public with the facts concerning the operation of their companies and the methods through which business operates.

State trade walls. By F. Eugene Melder. New York, Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1939. 31 pp., charts. (Public affairs pamphlets, No. 37.)

A summary of numerous studies in this field of restrictive State and local policies, with proposals for freeing the Nation's economic life from such restrictions.

Textile markets—their structure in relation to price research. New York, National Bureau of Economic Research, 1939. 266 pp. (Price studies, No. 2.)

The National Bureau of Economic Research sponsored a conference on price research which appointed committees to deal with price problems in the textile, oil, steel, bituminous-coal, and automobile industries, and in merchandise distribution. The report of the Committee on Textile Price Research is an effort to describe the characteristics of prices in a group of industries in which there is a particularly important connection between prices and wages. Suggested areas of further study include the effects not only of wage rates and labor costs on prices but also of prices on labor costs and wage rates.

Education and Training

Equal educational opportunity for youth—a national responsibility. By Newton Edwards; a report to the American Youth Commission. Washington, American Council on Education, 1939. 189 pp., charts.

Included in the subjects considered in this volume are: Social forces and the expansion of American education, distribution of child population in relation to income, economic resources and the educational task in rural problem areas, and education in relation to occupational trends.

Individual guidance in a C. C. C. camp; its effect upon participation and quality of work in a voluntary educational program. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1939. 43 pp., chart. (Bulletin, 1939, No. 7.)

A review of educational legislation, 1937 and 1938. By Ward Keesecker. Washington, U. S. Office of Education, 1939. 53 pp. (Bulletin, 1939, No. 16.)

The subjects covered by the legislation reviewed in this pamphlet include teachers' salaries, tenure, employment, and retirement; and vocational and adult education.

Masters of their own destiny: The story of the Antigonish movement of adult education through economic cooperation. By M. M. Coady. New York and London, Harper & Bros., 1939. 170 pp.

Training procedure. By Frank Cushman. New York, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1940. 230 pp.

A discussion of the problems encountered in planning, organizing, operating, and maintaining efficient training programs in industrial, business, and public-service organizations.

Employment and Unemployment

Employment and unemployment of the labor force, 1900-1940. (In Conference Board Economic Record, National Industrial Conference Board, Inc., New York, March 20, 1940; 16 pp., charts.)

Opportunities in public service. Proceedings of conference arranged by Washington committee of Institute of Women's Professional Relations, Washington, D. C., November 10 and 11, 1939. New London, Conn., Institute of Women's Professional Relations, 1940. 290 pp.; mimeographed.

After the shutdown: An analysis of the job-hunting experience of a group of Durham hosiery workers. By Frank Traver de Vyver. (In Journal of Political Economy, Chicago, February 1940, pp. 105-113.)

The analysis deals with 381 employees who lost their jobs when the hosiery mills in Durham, N. C., and nearby towns, discontinued the manufacture of ladies' seamless cotton hosiery. The writer states that the most important fact brought out by the study is that the displaced workers required, on an average, seven months to find new jobs, in spite of improving economic conditions.

Seasonality of employment—its relation to unemployment compensation in Florida. Tallahassee, Florida Industrial Commission, Department of Research and Statistics, 1940. 89 pp., charts. (Research memorandum 4.)

A study undertaken to throw light on the problems of administering the Florida unemployment-compensation law, because of the predominance in the State's economy of seasonal fluctuations in employment. The methods used are described and the extent and nature of seasonal fluctuations are discussed in relation to the more important industries of the State, including the growing and packing of fruits and vegetables; the maintenance of clubs, restaurants, and hotels connected with the tourist trade; and some of the manufacturing industries.

General Reports

Annual report of Governor of Alaska, for fiscal year ended June 30, 1939. Washington, U. S. Department of the Interior, 1939. 66 pp.

Includes information on vocational education, social-security program, Pioneers' Home, and the Matanuska Colony.

Annual report of Governor of Hawaii, for fiscal year ended June 30, 1939. Washington, U. S. Department of the Interior, 1939. 72 pp.

Reviews the various Federal activities in the Islands and presents data on the work of the Hawaiian Homes Commission; the Territorial employees' retirement system; population and race; and various other subjects.

Annual report of Governor of Virgin Islands, for fiscal year ended June 30, 1939. Washington, U. S. Department of the Interior, 1939. 24 pp.

Gives data on homesteads, cooperatives, and projects carried on by the CCC.

Handbook of Latin American studies, 1938: A selective guide to material published in 1938 on anthropology, archives, art, economics, education, folklore, geography, government, history, international relations, law, language and literature, and libraries. Edited by Lewis Hanke and Raul D'Eça. Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1939. 468 pp.

The section on economics has been reprinted by Harvard University Press.

Indisch verslag, 1939: II, Statistisch jaaroverzicht van Nederlandsch-Indië over het jaar 1938. Batavia, Java, Departement van Economische Zaken, Centraal Kantoor voor de Statistiek, 1939. 531 pp. (In Dutch and English.)

Statistical yearbook on economic conditions in Netherland India, including data on wages, unemployment, employment service, trade-union membership, strikes (in Java), prices and cost of living, taxation of wage incomes, and poor relief, in 1938 and earlier years.

The official yearbook of New South Wales, 1937-38. Sydney, Bureau of Statistics and Economics, 1939. 1035 pp., map.

Includes information on prices, rents, cost of living, employment, wages, arbitration of industrial disputes, workmen's compensation, old-age pensions, and cooperative societies.

New Zealand's Labor Government at work. By W. B. Sutch. New York, League for Industrial Democracy, 1940. 32 pp.

Deals with labor conditions, such as arbitration, hours of work, and wages, as well as other economic subjects.

The writer is an economist on the staff of the New Zealand Ministry of Finance and Marketing.

Report of Director of Labor and Chief Inspector of Factories and Shops, Queensland, for year ended June 30, 1939. Brisbane, Department of Labor, 1939. 71 pp.

Accounts of operations under the several factory and labor laws as well as statistical analyses.

Report of Department of Labor, Union of South Africa, for year ended December 31, 1938. Pretoria, 1939. 123 pp.

Also includes wage board, factory inspection, unemployment-benefit, and workmen's compensation reports.

Health and Industrial Hygiene

Preliminary report of New York State Temporary Legislative Commission to formulate a long range State health program, transmitted May 15, 1939. Albany, 1939. 48 pp., charts. (Legislative document, 1939, No. 97.)

Among the measures recommended by the committee were expansion of the public-health program, uniform record keeping of municipal expenditures for public health, expansion of county laboratory systems, establishment of cancer clinics, and promotion of a comprehensive maternity program.

Selected bibliography on health and medical services in the United States and related subjects, with special reference to the National Health Conference of 1938. By Elizabeth G. Pritchard. Washington, U. S. Public Health Service, November 1, 1939. 37 pp.; mimeographed.

Practical application of industrial exhaust ventilation for the control of occupational exposures. By B. F. Postman. (In American Journal of Public Health, New York, February 1940, pp. 149-161; diagrams, illus.)

Workers health hazards—today and tomorrow: Detection and control of silicosis and occupational diseases. New York, Department of Labor, 1940. 20, x pp., illus.

Progress report, by the Industrial Commissioner of the New York Department of Labor, on the work accomplished under the five-year program started in 1936 for the control of silicosis and the hazards in various industrial processes in that State.

Housing

Annual report of United States Housing Authority. Washington, 1940. 59 pp., folders.

Covers the operations of the Housing Authority in administering PWA housing projects as well as projects erected for the Authority.

Can America build houses? By Miles L. Colean. New York, Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1940. 31 pp., charts. (Public affairs pamphlets No. 19, revised.)

Outlines housing needs and describes the place of public housing, both Federal and local.

Housing and welfare officials confer. Chicago, Public Administration Service, 1939. 19 pp. (Publication No. 67.)

A summary of discussion at the Joint Conference of Housing and Welfare Officials held in Chicago in May 1939.

New homes for old: Public housing in Europe and America. By William V. Reed and Elizabeth Ogg. New York, Foreign Policy Association, 1940. 112 pp., diagrams, illus. (Headline books, No. 22.)

Discusses housing needs and methods of providing housing.

Rural housing and planning. Geneva, League of Nations, 1939. 58 pp. (European Conference on Rural Life, 1939, monograph 18.)

English grants-in-aid: A study in the finance of local government. By Howard R. Bowen. Iowa City, Iowa, 1939. 156 pp. (University of Iowa studies in social science, Vol. XI, No. 1.)

Contains a section on promotional grants for housing.

Immigration and Immigrants

Guide for aliens desiring American citizenship. Compiled by George Trazivuk. New Orleans, Department of Agriculture and Immigration of Louisiana, 1939. 90 pp. 14th ed., revised.

Contains a codification of the immigration and naturalization laws of the United States, text of the Constitution of the United States, statistics and history references, fundamentals of citizenship, and other data.

The immigration work of the Department of State and its consular officers (revised to July 1, 1938). Washington, U. S. Department of State, 1939. 69 pp.

Since the Immigration Act of 1924, which went into effect July 1 of that year, the Department of State and its consular officers in foreign countries have participated to a considerable extent in regulating immigration into the United States.

Filipinos in California. By Bruno Lasker. (In Amerasia, New York, February 1940, pp. 575-579.)

Discusses the position of Filipino workers in California, the attitude toward them, their opportunities for employment, and other matters.

Industrial Home Work

Industrial home work: An analysis of home-work regulation, here and abroad. By Ruth Enalda Shallcross. New York, Industrial Affairs Publishing Co., 1939. xi, 257 pp., bibliography.

A detailed examination of home-work legislation in New York State as compared with legislative methods in other States and in foreign countries, especially in England and Germany, and an analysis of the problems arising out of legislative attempts to control industrial home work. From study of the data, and her own experience in the home-work inspection section of the New York Department of Labor, the author concludes that not all home work presents a problem which can be solved only by prohibitory legislation.

Industrial Relations

Organized labor and production: Next steps in industrial democracy. By Morris Llewellyn Cooke and Philip Murray. New York and London, Harper & Bros., 1940. 277 pp.

This book represents a first attempt by a management engineer and a union labor leader to deal jointly with the problems of industrial production and at the same time develop a background for effective cooperation between management and organized labor in solving these problems. As indicated by the subtitle of the book, "Next steps in industrial democracy," it offers guidance both to industrial managers and to labor-union officials as to ways and means of working together for their common interests and at the same time increasing labor productivity and raising the level of effective consumer purchasing power.

The Busch jewelry stores labor injunction. By John H. Mariano. Boston, Mass., Christopher Publishing House, 1940. 238 pp.

A discussion of the legal implications of the first permanent all-picketing injunction granted after the passage of the New York Civil Practice Act. In this case, says the author, it was the trial court's opinion that this act, and by implication the Norris-LaGuardia Act upon which the New York Act is patterned, is a procedural statute and not a substantive law statute. Therefore, the courts still have the power to issue total injunctions banning all picketing in certain types of cases.

List of references on National Labor Relations Board. Washington, U. S. National Labor Relations Board, Division of Economic Research, 1939. 26 pp.; mimeographed.

Decreto que prorroga la obligatoriedad del Contrato Colectivo de Trabajo de la Industria Azucarera, Alcohólica y Similares [México]. (In *Diario Oficial*, Mexico, D. F., December 21, 1939, pp. 7-26.)

Text of the presidential decree, effective December 22, 1939, which made compulsory for the entire sugar, alcohol, and similar industries of Mexico the terms of a collective labor agreement reached by representatives of employers and workers in those industries. The labor agreement contains provisions relating to hours of work and rest, paid vacations, workmen's compensation, housing and other social welfare, employment and promotion, prevention of disputes, classification of sugar mills, and wages for many specified jobs in each of the three classes of mills.

Industry Reports

Transactions of Second Annual Anthracite Conference of Lehigh University, April 28-29, 1939, Bethlehem, Pa. Bethlehem, 1939. 238 pp.

Includes papers on the economic and technical aspects of anthracite mining, marketing, and use.

Report by Board of Trade, Great Britain, on working of schemes under Part I of Coal Mines Act, 1930, since December quarter 1937. London, Mines Department, 1940. 24 pp. (Cmd. 6170.)

Shows adjustments in production and price control in the coal industry under the regulatory legislation.

The livestock industry for Wyoming—an industrial study. By C. W. Skinner. Cheyenne, National Youth Administration for Wyoming, 1939. 115 pp., bibliography, illus.; mimeographed.

A brief section is devoted to work opportunities.

The background and economics of American papermaking. By Louis Tillotson Stevenson. New York and London, Harper & Bros., 1940. 249 pp., bibliography.

Convenient summary of the historical background and some of the outstanding current characteristics of the paper industry. There is a short chapter on labor in the industry. The author's point of view regarding social control, which he discusses in two chapters, is indicated by the statement that "the economic factors present in the industry tend to make it self-regulating."

Industria textil: capacidad normal de trabajo de los obreros, especialmente mujeres y menores. Buenos Aires, Argentina, Ministerio del Interior, Departamento Nacional del Trabajo, 1939. 94 pp., charts.

This report of Dr. José Figuerola, Chief of the Statistical Division of the Argentine National Labor Bureau, shows employment in the textile industry in Argentina on different dates, basic salaries for numerous jobs for men, women, and minors in the cotton and woolen textile industries in 1937, working conditions in the textile industry, the relation of machines to employment, and conclusions reached through the study.

Third annual report of Spindles Board [Great Britain]. London, 1940. 7 pp. (Cmd. 6157.)

A report covering the operations of the board in reducing redundant cotton spindles during 1939.

Legislation and Court Decisions

The National Labor Relations Act—should it be amended? By Julia E. Johnsen. New York, H. W. Wilson Co., 1940. 416 pp. (The Reference Shelf, Vol. 13, No. 9.)

Compilation of factual and controversial material underlying the public hearings and current discussions on the subject, including arguments for and against amendment of the law.

A guide to workmen's compensation—the law and its practice in New York State. By H. D. Margules and Max Bloom. New York, Progress Books, 1939. 94 pp.

The Sherman Antitrust Act and its enforcement. By Assistant Attorney General Arnold and staff members of Antitrust Division, U. S. Department of Justice. (In Law and Contemporary Problems, Vol. VII, No. 1, Duke University, School of Law, Durham, N. C., 1940; 160 pp.)

One of the articles in this symposium deals with the application of antitrust laws to labor organizations.

Proceedings of Sixth National Conference on Labor Legislation, Washington, D. C., November 13–15, 1939. Washington, U. S. Department of Labor, Division of Labor Standards, 1940. 109 pp. (Bulletin No. 35.)

Socio-agricultural legislation in Latin-American countries. By Moises Poblete Troncoso. (In Rural Sociology, University, La., March 1940, pp. 5–16.)

Historical account of the development of protective legislation for agricultural labor in Latin America; constitutional provisions safeguarding agricultural labor; and a brief discussion of such legislation now in force in the Latin-American countries with respect to labor contracts, wages, child labor, workmen's compensation, right of unionization, health insurance, and housing.

Die schweizerische sozialgesetzgebung, 1937. Bern, Volkswirtschaftsdepartement, 1939. 189 pp. (In German and French.)

Swiss social legislation of 1937 concerning labor protection; labor courts; employment service; increase of employment; training of the unemployed; insurance against unemployment, sickness, accidents, old age, and invalidity; training in trades; and civil-service legislation.

Labor cases, volume 1. Chicago, Ill., Commerce Clearing House, Inc., 1940. xxvii, 1388 pp.

Selected decisions on labor problems rendered by Federal and State courts during the period 1937 to 1939. The purpose of the compilation is to provide authoritative coverage of judicial determinations on various phases of labor relations and allied labor laws. In some instances the complete texts of the cases are given, especially those of a significant nature, while those of lesser importance are digested.

Labor Organization and Activities

A history of the Chicago Ladies' Garment Workers' Union. By Wilfred Carsel. Chicago, Normandie House, 1940. 323 pp.

A comprehensive account, in terms of the human beings involved, of the struggle of Chicago clothing workers to overcome sweatshop conditions in the clothing industry by means of a strong labor organization. The result has proved beneficial not only to the workers and the union affected but also in stabilizing the entire ladies' garment industry in the Chicago market.

The International Printing Pressmen and Assistants' Union of North America. By George L. Berry, president. (In Labor Information Bulletin, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, March 1940, pp. 1-4.)

Resoluciones del Congreso Nacional de Trabajadores [Cuba]. Habana, Confederación de Trabajadores de Cuba, 1939. 44 pp.

The most important resolutions adopted by the National Workers' Congress, at Habana, January 23 to 28, 1939, representing about 500,000 unionized workers, to which is appended a list of the unions participating in the congress, and their delegates.

Mexico today. Edited by Arthur P. Whitaker. (In The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 208, Philadelphia, March 1940, pp. 1-186.)

This collection of articles discussing various phases of Mexican life of today contains a historical account of the labor movement in Mexico by Dr. Vicente Lombardo Toledano, secretary-general of the Mexican Workers' Confederation.

Legal-Aid and Small-Claims Settlement

Legal aid work and the organized bar: A collection of the deliberations of the National Association of Legal Aid Organizations gathered from the stenographic record of the conferences. Compiled by John S. Bradway. Durham, N. C., 1939. 248 pp.; mimeographed.

Benefits, functions, and procedures of small-claims courts. By John S. Bradway. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 12 pp. (Serial No. R. 1060, reprint from January 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

Minimum Wage

The determination of minimum wage rates. By Frank Pierson. (In American Economic Review, Evanston, Ill., March 1940, pp. 72-81.)

Instilling fra Lønnslovkomiteen. Oslo, Norway, Sosialdepartementet, 1939. 79 pp.

Reviews the establishment and activities of the Wage Law Committee appointed in Norway on March 4, 1938, and gives information on minimum wages, on minimum-wage legislation of 1918 and 1937, and on the law of February 26, 1937, providing for wage control, together with the committee's recommendations for new legislation.

Old-Age Assistance

Report of State Old Age Welfare Commission of Delaware for the year 1939. Dover, 1940. 6 pp.

Statistical report on operation of old-age assistance in Delaware.

El seguro social en Cuba: Cajas de retiro existentes. (In Boletín, Caja General de Jubilaciones y Pensiones de Empleados y Obreros de Ferrocarriles y Tranvías, Habana, January 1940, pp. 4-7.)

A simple listing of the 14 retirement and pension funds at present operating in Cuba, arranged in chronological order, with the legal enactment authorizing each, and some statistics of operation.

Older Worker in Industry

Jobs after forty. By Beulah Amidon. New York, Public Affairs Committee, Inc., 1939. 32 pp., charts. (Public affairs pamphlets No. 35.)

Based on data gathered and prepared by the United States Department of Labor staff for the Committee on Employment Problems of Older Workers.

Selected list of references on the problem of the older worker. Washington, U. S. Information Service, February 26, 1940. 13 pp.; mimeographed.

Relief Measures and Statistics

Relief and welfare organization in California. By Victor Jones. Berkeley, University of California, Bureau of Public Administration, 1939. 52 pp.; bibliography; mimeographed. (1939 Legislative problems, No. 5.)

Rural relief trends in Wisconsin from 1934 to 1937. By George W. Hill and Ronald A. Smith. Madison, University of Wisconsin Press, 1939. 57 pp., charts. Contains data on characteristics of families on relief—age composition, size, occupational training, employability, etc.

Armenzorgstatistiek over het jaar 1937. The Hague, Centraal Bureau voor de Statistiek, [1940?]. 103 pp.

Statistics of poor relief in the Netherlands in 1937.

Talleres colectivos por la organización gremial para la solución del problema de los desocupados. By J. E. Vásquez Andrade. Lima, Peru, ["El Universal"], 1939. 59 pp.

The pamphlet contains the text of the Peruvian law (No. 7103) of April 10, 1931, which established a tax to be used in the establishment of collective enterprises on which to employ the unemployed in construction of houses for workers, roads, bridges, schools, etc., and in paving, drainage, and irrigation. Information is also given on the development of the scheme which was the basis of the present system of unemployment relief in Peru.

Unemployment Insurance

Report of New York Unemployment Insurance State Advisory Council for year 1939. [New York?], 1940. 22 pp.; mimeographed.

Report of New York Unemployment Insurance State Advisory Council on subject of experience rating. New York, March 1940. In two parts, 46 and 116 pp.; mimeographed.

The majority of the Council, which has equal representation of the public, employers, and employees, was opposed to experience or merit rating or any form of variation in the rate of contributions. The three employer representatives were in favor of experience rating and recommended immediate legislative action thereon, while one representative of the public was in favor of experience rating in principle but did not recommend immediate action. Part 1 of the report presents conclusions and recommendations; the second part contains a digest of statistical data and information on the subject submitted to the council.

Wages and Hours of Labor

Annual earnings in hosiery industry. By H. E. Riley and E. B. Morris. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 11 pp. (Serial No. R. 1066, reprint from January 1940 Monthly Labor Review.)

Earnings and hours in leather and leather belting and packing industries, 1939. Washington, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1940. 70 pp.; mimeographed.

Wages, hours, and conditions in retail distributive trades. Report of the Retail Distributive Trades Conference (England and Wales). London, 1939. 8 pp.

Gives recommendations of a joint committee of employers and employees for regulation of working conditions in retail trade.

Fifth annual report of Federal Communications Commission, fiscal year ended June 30, 1939. Washington, 1940. 246 pp., charts.

Includes data on number and compensation of radio-broadcasting, telephone, and telegraph employees at end of 1938, and total amounts paid to them in relief and pensions during 1938.

Salary report of telephone and telegraph carriers and holding companies, 1938. Washington, Federal Communications Commission, 1939. 45 pp.; mimeographed.

Covers compensation of officers, directors, and other persons who received salaries of \$10,000 or more during the year 1938, as shown in the annual reports filed with the Federal Communications Commission.

Women in Industry

Women in the community [Denmark]. Edited by Kirsten Gloerfelt-Tarp. London and New York, Oxford University Press; Copenhagen and Oslo, Martin, [1939?]. 301 pp., illus. (In English.)

Considers the revolution in the position of women in recent times; employment in domestic service, trade, and industry; women's trade-unions; status as regards social legislation; and other matters.

Report of symposium on household employment held in New York City, November 28, 1939. New York, Women's Trade Union League, [1940?]. 51 pp.; mimeographed.

This symposium was sponsored by 22 civic, social, religious, labor, and women's groups. Among the subjects considered were education and organization of employers; development of standards as regards hours of work, wages, and contracts and agreements; training of household workers; recreation and leisure-time activities; legislation as regards household employment; and organization of domestic workers. The report also contains a bibliography on household employment.

Italian women past and present. By Maria Castellani. Rome, Società Editrice di Novissima, 1939. 95 pp., illus.

Presents figures on employment of women in Italy, health and insurance of employed women, factory legislation especially protective of women, and women's wages.